The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 9, 1899.

The Week.

Although no Federal officials were chosen on Tuesday, except in four Congressional districts to fill vacancies in the House of Representatives, a national aspect was given to the campaign in so many States that the result must be accepted as a verdict of the country on the McKinley Administration, and especially on its policy of expansion. Ohio was the State upon which all eyes were centred. Personal and factional considerations were important elements in the contest there, while an entirely novel factor in the fight was the utterly unconventional campaign of a curious but forceful personality, in the candidacy of Jones on the platform of the "Golden Rule." Hanna, as the despotic boss of the Republican party in the State, provoked bitter opposition within that party, especially in his own town of Cleveland; while his ally, Cox, as the Republican boss of the chief city, aroused a similar revolt in Cincinnati. On the other hand, McLean was so bitterly hated and so thoroughly despised by many prominent Democrats that there were various local centres of Democratic disaffection. The important feature of the result is that, leaving Cincinnati and Cleveland out of the account, the State gave a larger majority in support of the McKinley Administration on its policy of expansion than it gave a year ago before that policy had developed. The President has his own State behind him. Iowa furnishes an even clearer test of popular sentiment in the same direction. In that State there were no local, personal, or factional considerations involved. A Democrat of high character ran against the excellent Republican Governor. The Democrats dropped the silver issue, and made their fight on the question of expansion. The Republicans met them without shrinking. The result is a greatly increased Republican majority.

The demoralization of the Democratic party is more complete than ever before since its collapse in the Grant-Greeley campaign of 1872. New Jersey, normaly a Democratic State, shows Republican gains in the Legislature. The Republicans of New York, although handicapped by the odious bossism of Platt, have everywhere made gains. The Republicans of Pennsylvania, carrying even a heavier load in the still more offensive rule of Boss Quay, have given his weak candidate for State Treasurer a tremendous majority. South Dakota, which went for Bryan by a small margin in 1896, and gave but a small Republican majority last year, while the Opposition then saved the governorship, shows Republican gains this fall. Bryan, nevertheless, retains his hold upon his own State of Nebraska. The increased majority for the Populist ticket is a personal tribute to him which cannot be minimized. It is largely explained by a frame of mind which Eastern people find it hard to understand—pride as citizens of a State in the national prominence of a fellow-citizen, and readiness for this reason to help a "favorite son." It is conceded by all familiar with the situation that Harrison's majority in Indiana for President when he was elected in 1888, was due to this feeling on the part of a good many voters who were not hide-bound Democrats.

There are two facts in the results of the election in this city and State which are so self-evident that it is scarcely necessary to point them out. The first is that the city is as hopelessly as ever in the clutch of Croker; and the second is that his fellow-boss, Platt, has secured a firmer grip upon the State than he has had for several years. The reasons why this is the case are scarcely less obvious. Croker holds the city through the enormous patronage which was conferred upon him, first by the charter which Platt "jammed through" the Legislature, and, second, through the candidacy of Gen. Tracy, for which Platt was solely responsible. There is a sure Tammany majority here ranging from 40,000 to 60,000, which nothing ordinary in the way of "damaging disclosures" can seriously diminish. The apathy in registering is explained.

We do not think Mr. McKinley will thank President Schurman for saying, in effect, that all this talk about the American flag flying over slavery and polygamy in the Sulu Islands makes him "tired." The "present hue and cry about slavery and polygamy in these islands" seems to Mr. Schurman almost "criminal." With all respect, we must say that such a statement could not come from an American to the manner born. President Schurman did not live among us in the prolonged agony of our anti-slavery struggle, and it is inevitable, therefore, that he cannot understand the deep American sentiment which his excuses for tolerating "a mild form of bondage" under the American flag must affront. To appreciate this he has only to read the indignant cry of Dr. Theodore L. Cuyler at the disgrace of having "that polygamous brute and slaveholder, the Sultan of Sulu, our stipendiary and representative." President McKinley has been far shrewder in this matter than Mr. Schurman. He has never once alluded to it in all his multitudinous speeches. His silences have been awkward sometimes, as when he perorated to the embattled Methodists about our flag meaning "liberty" in the Philippines; but still he has been clever enough to see that he, an American born, a veteran of the civil war, a Republican of Republicans, simply could not say one word in public in palliation of restoring slavery under the American flag. It is probable that he wishes President Schurman had observed a like discreet if significant silence.

We get a good hint of the way in which our Philippine adventure is eating the core out of the American tradition when we read such a suggestion as President Schurman makes in regard to "a large and irresistible army." He thinks that Congress ought to vote this for the President "unanimously," because, he says, "any division of opinion might be misunderstood by the Filipinos." We ourselves think a forced unanimity might be as badly misunderstood by them, but let that pass. The point is that the good old way of debate, of attrition of personal and party view, of deliberate consideration of what is best for the country—all this is to be put aside for fear that somebody whom we are fighting will not understand the American method of legislating. In order to prevent their misapprehension, we change all our habits. We have been historically against a large standing army, for good and sufficient reason, but if some far-away Tagalo or Kanaka cannot understand this preference of ours, why, we will surrender it at once. When this thing is logically carried out, legislation will be delightfully simple. The President will send a message to Congress asking for fifty battle-ships, and will add, "I recommend that the bill be passed without debate and unanimously, so that Russia may not be misled." He will ask for another national defence fund of $50,000,000, and will say, "It would be well if this fund could be voted without reference to committee, and if all the members of Congress would rise and bow their heads when the President's name is mentioned, and, instead of saying 'Aye,' cry 'Hurrah for the flag!' in order that foreigners may have no doubt as to what our intentions are."

Senator Lodge, after a long silence, has broken out in a most immoral speech regarding the war in the Philippines. He holds in the first place that the islands should be held by us as a possession, not to be incorporated with

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the United States, but as conquered people and territory. "We can trust ourselves to govern them well," he says; which has been the usual saying of conquerors and tyrants from the dawn of history to the present day. Then he proceeds to give his reasons for this policy, the first of which is that the possession of Manila gives us a stepping-stone for the trade of Eastern Asia. In demonstrating the importance of holding a subjugated race in order to promote trade, Mr. Lodge said:

"In the economic struggle the great nations of Europe for many years past have been seizing all the waste places, and all the weakly held lands of the earth, as the surest means of trade development. Some years ago that process of seizure began in South America, and if we had not intervened, it would have been comparatively but a short time before South America would have been parcelled out like Africa. We did intervene, and to some purpose. There will be no parcelling out of that continent and no seizures of land there by any European Power. We have now little of the trade with South America. We should, we must, have most of it, and we should also use all our vast influence to promote in those regions peace and good government, upon which prosperity and development rest."

This is all wind. What nation has done the most seizing of "waste places and weakly held lands"? England, of course. She has, if you please, seized more than all the others combined, yet she has not placed a stone in the way of other people's trade in those lands. On the contrary, she has spent her money and her blood in opening free markets for every other nation to buy and sell in, on the same terms as herself.

Mr. Lodge's tale about South America and our intervention must refer to the Venezuela case. There has been no other process of seizure within some years, even if that can be called by such a name. The tribunal of arbitration gave to England all but a fraction of the territory she claimed, and everybody knows that our trade with the country in dispute will be enlarged instead of restricted by that decision. It will be enlarged by the establishment of peace, order, and free trade, none of which could be guaranteed by Venezuela, a government that cannot keep steady on its legs more than two years in succession—a country where governments come and go with such rapidity that we cannot affirm at any time who will be in authority six months hence.

A fresh attempt will be made at the approaching session of Congress to secure some consideration for Alaska. It is over thirty years since the United States assumed control of the region, but nothing like a systematic form of government for it has yet been provided. The great trouble has been that until recently there was only a handful of white people in that whole vast section (the natives, of course, counting for nothing), and Congressmen were so busy with the affairs of their "deestricts" and their parties that they could not spare any time for something so much out of the world as Alaska. The nearest approach to success in any legislative movement was a vigorous push which was made by a lobbyist during the Fifty-fourth Congress to have Alaska made into a regular territory, with a delegate in Congress, like Arizona or New Mexico. The change was urged in the interest of self-government by the people of the region, but the truth was that the man who was to be the representative of Alaska and get the $5,000 salary and the $3,000 mileage in case the bill had been passed, was living in Boston, never had been outside of Boston, and had been elected delegate from Alaska by his business partners. Since the rush of gold-seekers into the Klondike there are a good many more white men interested in Alaska than there used to be, but it remains to be seen whether the interests of the natives, who live there all the while and have always been the worst sufferers from misrule in the past, will fare any better in the future.

Adjt.-Gen. Corbin is unable to resist the opportunity to say a good word in his annual report for our antiquated army staff organization, of which he is so conspicuous a part. He admits that the staff "may be open to improvements," but finds that nearly all its critics have been long-standing applicants for places in the corps, and proceeds to recount what has been accomplished by the various bureaus in raising the volunteer army within the last five months. This matter of replying to those earnest, intelligent, and progressive younger officers of all branches of the service who have for years protested against the reign of bureaucracy and the usefulness of methods out of date in 1870, can only reflect upon Gen. Corbin himself, who, despite his praiseworthy executive ability, continues to be one of the greatest stumbling-blocks in the way of reorganization. Of late practically commander of the army, he should be reduced to his proper position of military secretary to Gen. Miles as the first step towards its modernization. His department should be the first to be consolidated, and should be the first to be made up of officers detached from the line for temporary service only, and giving way in turn to others similarly detailed. If Gen. Corbin were familiar with the latest developments of the armies of Europe, and had the welfare of his own service unselfishly at heart, his annual report would be full of urgent recommendations as to the necessity of immediate reform. Leaving aside the record of the war with Spain, he would find it inconsistent with his duty to approve any system by which the soldiers are subsisted by one department, obtain their eating-utensils from a second, draw the food for their horses from a third, are paid by a fourth, recruited by a fifth, and inspected by a sixth.

The striking feature of the brief summary of Gen. Leonard Wood's annual report is his recommendation that the number of United States troops under his command be further reduced to two squadrons of cavalry and two battalions of infantry. There could be no better testimony as to the extent of the peaceful revolution accomplished by him than this readiness to reduce his available soldiers to the number of 1,600 within so short a time after taking command, and it must serve to put an end to any remaining fears of lawlessness, brigandage, or armed hostility to the United States in his province. The proposed action is in line, furthermore, with the recommendations of those who have studied and followed the regeneration of Cuba most carefully, which are that the outward signs of United States authority should be diminished as rapidly as possible, and every effort made to utilize the Cubans themselves in the various branches of the Government service. Nowhere is the necessity for this action greater than in Havana itself, and Gen. Wood's recommendation will have double value if it leads to a decrease of the troops in Havana, and their entire removal from that city, with the possible appointment of a good civil governor. No action could give the Cubans a better assurance that their future development is to rest in their own hands as rapidly as they show the ability to take part in it intelligently and honestly. It is known that Gen. Wood is also in favor of raising a Cuban regiment officered in the higher grades by Americans, in order to bring about the further retirement of United States soldiers now on duty under him, on the ground that it will give employment to many still unsettled men, instil in them a respect for law and order, teach them proper police methods, and further increase their confidence in their temporary rulers. The experiment is well worth trying, and will doubtless be authorized before long.

Secretary Gage deserves the heartiest commendation for his refusal to set aside the award for the new custom-house building in this city at the bidding of Platt. He has, by his firmness in this matter, done as great a service to good architecture in this country as the architects themselves achieved when they secured the passage of the Tarsney act. It will be a long time before another political boss will venture to meddle in an affair of this sort. The few architects who, for one reason or another, allowed themselves to be used by Platt in furtherance of his efforts, will sooner or later perceive what a serious mistake they made. They should have

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reasoned, when the issue was presented to them, that Platt's motives in the case could under no circumstances be other than bad. Nobody could imagine for a moment that the merits of Mr. Gilbert's plan had anything whatever to do with Platt's objection to it. He was against it solely because there was nothing in it for him. Instead of being a reason for architects to oppose the plan, Platt's antagonism constituted the most powerful of all reasons for favoring it. If he had succeeded in having the award set aside, he and his kind would have become the "jury of experts" to sit upon all plans for public buildings hereafter, for the precedent once established would be appealed to in every case in which there was not sufficient "politics" in the award.

We have not observed that the Republican newspapers have been able to comment with either freedom or vigor upon the action of the Civil-Service Commission in regard to the criminal course of the Ohio Republican State committee in seeking to collect campaign contributions from Federal employees. The most outspoken Republican comment that we have seen is that of the *Tribune*, which says that the Commission's decision "must give satisfaction to every man, regardless of party, who believes in good and efficient government," that the "attempt to evade this law has been persistent and vicious," and that "recently there have been many signs that politicians were preparing for a general assault on the merit system, and there is need of just such firm resistance to every backward step." This is good as far as it goes, but why stop there? Why not say who must exert the "firm resistance" which is necessary to stop the "general assault," and punish the men who are guilty of this "persistent and vicious" evasion of the law? Nobody except the President can exert this influence, for he alone has the power. Has he taken any steps to punish the Ohio Republican State committee for its criminal acts? Does the *Tribune* imagine that he ever will take any?

Will Gov. Roosevelt explain to the public, in a manner most agreeable to himself, why he does not enforce the law against prize-fighting in this State? We had another violation of it at Coney Island on Friday night, open, flagrant, and defiant as it could possibly be. The law is clear and explicit in describing both the kind of fistic exhibition that shall be allowed and the kind that shall not. It forbids absolutely "a fight commonly called a ring or prize-fight, at which an admission fee is charged or received." This is precisely what came off at Coney Island. It was a fight to the finish in 25 rounds, at the end of which both men were in a condition of collapse, both were covered with blood, and one had two ribs broken. It was also a fight in the presence of 10,000 people who paid admission fees aggregating $70,000. The newspapers agree as to all these points. They agree in saying that the fight was as brutal as it well could be. It is impossible for any man to deny, in the face of the columns of space devoted to the affair in the morning newspapers, with the disgusting details and pictorial illustrations which they give of it, that it was a prize-fight in the full sense of the term, and as such entirely illegal.

The Governor cannot put the blame for this, the second or third violation of the law, upon the Tammany authorities in this city. That they should permit this kind of barbarism and brutality is not to be wondered at. They habitually exert the police power not only to protect but to foster those forms of amusement in which the low and criminal elements of the population especially delight. But they cannot permit prize-fighting except with the consent of the Governor, for that is regulated by State law, and he is under oath to enforce all State laws. It was his sworn duty, when the first fight was heralded openly a few months ago, to serve notice upon the police authorities in this city that if they permitted it to occur, he would hold them to account for it. He did nothing of the kind. He let the fight take place without a word of protest even, and he let the second take place also without protest. Does he think this kind of fighting necessary to develop true manliness in the American people? Does he regard it as part of "the strenuous life"? As an educated, civilized man, does he think it a beneficent thing to send into the households of the land, for the perusal of youth, such flaming accounts of the affair as were published the next morning? And if he does believe all these things, does that constitute justification for refusing to enforce the law? Are we less civilized than Texas, whose Governor so rigorously enforced the law there as to drive prize-fighting from the State? If so, then it ill becomes us to denounce Tammany Hall for the kind of government it gives the city of New York.

A Trust among workingmen has been brought into court at Pittsburgh. The manufacturers in the glass industry having made a combination to keep up the price of their products, the employees made another to keep up the price of labor. They allow only a small number of new men to learn the trade from year to year, and try to destroy the business of any employer who attempts to conduct operations with laborers who do not belong to their union. In Pittsburgh they have been enticing away the employees of such a manufacturer, and when they had nearly ruined him, he appealed to the courts. Judge White has just granted an injunction restraining the officials of the American Flint Glass-Workers' Union from hereafter persuading any apprentices of this non-union manufacturer to violate the terms of their indenture by joining the union, and from interfering in any other way with his apprentices to his injury. Judge White laid down certain fundamental principles which should govern in such a case, as that the manufacturer has a right to employ workmen not connected with the union, to dismiss them if they should join such an organization, and to take apprentices in the old-fashioned way; and, on the other hand, that every man has the absolute right to choose his trade or vocation, or engage in any lawful business, that no person, association, or organization has a right to hinder or interfere with him, and that those who attempt to thwart or defeat him in this right are guilty of a wrongful act. "Organized labor," however, does not recognize these principles, and if Judge White were running for reëlection this fall, the workingmen would doubtless make this decision an argument against him.

By the imposing vote of 6 to 4, the House of Lords passed on October 27 a resolution directed against the Cromwell statue. It takes three members, we believe, to make a quorum (or "make a house") in the Lords. Lord Eldon used to get his own judgments affirmed by the support of one Bishop and one lay peer; so that ten votes are really a formidable array for their lordships. Still it is not at all likely that the resolution will ever be heard of again, except in ridicule. The Lord Chancellor advised against a division, with less than a dozen peers present, on the ground that action could have no legal effect and could not be expected to influence either the Government or the country. But it seems that an urgent whip had been sent out by the leaders of the movement against the statue, and, though the response in attendance was so disappointing, the noble lords who made such unaccustomed efforts to be present insisted upon having a run for their money. But, as the statue is already in course of erection within the precincts of Westminster Palace, and as Parliament has adjourned without any action in the premises by the Commons, we fear that the outrage to aristocratic sensibilities will be completed. Lord Hardwicke affirmed that "Oliver Cromwell emerging from the area of Westminster Palace suggested to his mind nothing so readily as Mephistopheles in the play rising from the nether world." Well, if he came, we are sure his satanic grin would be deepened by the sight of the six heroic lords trying to prevent his recognition as one of the rare company of England's great men.

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THE PHILIPPINE COMMISSION REPORT.

The preliminary report of the Philippine Commission, hastily put together for publication at the President's "request," was obviously issued as a timely and first-class campaign document. As such it naturally shares the amiable and well-known infirmities of that species of literature. It falls with great fury upon several men of straw, and knocks them completely off their legs. What nobody denies, it asserts with great fervor, and speaks with horror of certain crimes which no man proposes to commit. No sneaking advocate of "anarchy" or "dishonor" will find, we are glad to say, the least countenance in the report. It is as resolute and uncompromising in dealing with all who wish to disgrace themselves and their country as any party platform ever written.

Certain irrelevancies and inconsistencies, which even the hurried reader of this hurried composition will note, may charitably be set down to the pressure under which it was produced to meet the political emergency. It satisfactorily proves that Admiral Dewey did not promise Aguinaldo independence. But nobody that we ever heard of has asserted that he did. Consul-General Pratt was the official who promised it, if anybody did. On June 8, 1898, a Philippine deputation waited upon Mr. Pratt in Singapore to thank him for "the programme arranged between you, sir, and Gen. Aguinaldo in this port of Singapore," which was intended, they said, to "secure to us our independence under the protection of the United States." Consul Pratt, in replying, did not repudiate the word "independence," but said: "I trust the final outcome will be all that the Filipinos can desire." Of course, there was nothing authorized or binding about this, but if the Commission thought fit to go into the matter of alleged promises at all, they might well have referred to the case where there was some *prima-facie* evidence of a promise, instead of dealing only with the one where there was none.

We think also that the Commission were, in one part of their report (though their language is ambiguous, and we may misinterpret it), too hard upon their absent colleague, Gen. Otis. Arguing the general unfitness of the natives to govern themselves, they spoke of the "flat failure" of the attempt to set up "an independent native government in Negros." The Commissioners, be it observed, wrote this under date of November 2. But only the day before, November 1, Gen. Otis telegraphed of the great success of the native government in Negros. "Quiet election," he cabled; "over 5,000 votes cast; no frauds attempted." Do the Commission base the "flat failure" upon the ground that no frauds were attempted, and that, therefore, the natives are far behind the American practice? The Commissioners really seem capable of it, for one other proof they advance of native unfitness for self-government is that voters in the Philippines go about "asking whom they were expected to vote for." A strict enforcement of this test would disfranchise New York, and put Ohio at once under military government.

A more serious inconsistency is to be found in that part of the report which speaks of the failure of the Commission to arrange a peaceable settlement with Aguinaldo. They say: "The American people may feel confident that no effort was omitted by the Commission to secure a peaceful end of the struggle." But a fuller statement of the case is made by one of the members of the Commission, President Schurman, in an "authorized interview" in last week's *Outlook*. He makes it perfectly clear that the Filipinos refused the Commission's offers because they did not believe it was legally empowered to make them. Here are Mr. Schurman's words:

> "Aguinaldo's commissioners were informed that a liberal form of government would be granted to the Philippine peoples, with a large share of home rule; that there should be a Governor-General appointed by the President of the United States, a cabinet consisting of Americans or Filipinos appointed by the Governor-General, and Judges of the higher courts, either American or Filipino, appointed by the President of the United States. But *the shrewd Filipinos immediately made the point that under the Constitution of the United States only Congress could determine their political status;* that whatever powers the President exercised were the war powers of the Constitution, which ceased with the establishment of peace."

This really brings us to the crux of the whole business as regards our future dealings with the Filipinos. In respect to the past, the report of the Commission will undoubtedly be accepted by the country as satisfactory. We have no disposition to quarrel with this conclusion. The Commissioners arrived on the scene after the mischief was done. They were appointed to prevent war, but war broke out before they could get to the spot. The diplomatic and military blunders of the past are spilt milk, not now to be watered by vain tears. We are in the mess; how shall we best get out of it? In our opinion, by avoiding hostilities not forced upon us, and by Congress speedily declaring what the status of the Filipinos is. As President Schurman says, the Treaty of Paris left them hanging "between heaven and hell." He sees in Congress the real and only solution of the problem. We heartily agree to that, and have, in fact, been steadily urging the dereliction of the President in breaking his promise to turn the whole matter over to Congress. If he does it now, and if Congress decides to live up to its implied promise and give the Filipinos the same terms as the Cubans, we shall have peace with honor.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

The definite retirement of Mr. Hobart from the duties of the Vice-Presidency will revive in many minds the question occasionally mooted from the beginning of the Republic till now, whether the Vice-Presidency has not come to be, like the electorate, a superfluous office. John Adams found in the anomalous status of the Vice-President a target for his satire, describing his as "the most insignificant office that ever the mind of man contrived or his imagination conceived," and inquiring "whether the framers of the Constitution had in view the two Kings of Sparta or the two Consuls of Rome, . . . one to have all the power while he held it, and the other to be nothing." Nevertheless, in those early days the importance of the Vice-Presidency was recognized in a very practical manner by the election to it of younger and more vigorous men than those elected to the Presidency. Adams was three years younger than Washington, Jefferson eight years younger than Adams, and Burr thirteen years younger than Jefferson. Not only was it deemed natural that the heir presumptive should be a man with better chances of life than the ancestor, but behind everything else was the feeling that the training in public affairs which he would acquire in the second rank would be of great value to himself and to the country on his promotion; for, until Burr's political collapse towards the close of Jefferson's first term, the President's understudy was regularly chosen to succeed him.

With the departure from this practice the decadence of the Vice-Presidency may be said to have begun, and it was hastened by the convention system of nominating candidates for both the greater and the lesser office, with its incidentals of log-rolling and playing upon sectional prejudice. As the utilitarian view of the Vice-Presidency waned, and the ornamental or at best the factional view took its place, the average age of the Vice-Presidents increased. The idea seemed to be that the office was a sinecure through which retiring politicians could pleasantly bow themselves out of public life, or by the gift of which some restless element in a party could be appeased. In recent years, therefore, the rule as to age has come to be the very reverse of that which prevailed at first. Wilson was ten years older than Grant, Wheeler three years older than Hayes, Arthur a year older than Garfield, Hendricks eighteen and Stevenson two years older than Cleveland, and Morton nine years older than Harrison. Hobart, who was a year younger than McKinley, was the first exception to the rule of seniority in a quarter-century. All this goes to show how far the Vice-Presidency has drifted in actual practice from the ideal of a hundred years ago.

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The prestige of the office received a yet more direct blow from the enactment of the Presidential succession law of 1886. The law of 1792, which still survived, provided that in case of death, resignation, or inability of both President and Vice-President, the duties of the Presidency should pass first to the President of the Senate, and then to the Speaker of the House of Representatives. The Forty-eighth Congress had expired in March, the Forty-ninth was not to assemble till December, and Vice-President Hendricks had died in the interval. As a matter of course, no Speaker had been elected; the presidency *pro tempore* of the Senate had not been filled for the new Congress, and, although the Senate is a continuing body, there was grave uncertainty in the minds of many Senators whether the President *pro tempore* of the late session could properly continue to execute that office without a new election. The situation was rendered all the more serious by the circumstance that the Senate was controlled by the Republicans, whereas the popular election of 1884 had decreed the transfer of executive power to the Democrats. When the Senate met in December it chose Mr. Sherman for its President *pro tempore*, and until the following January Mr. Cleveland's life was all that protected this expression of the popular will from reversal. The more thoughtful members of both houses of Congress realized the unwisdom of leaving the law as it stood, and a new statute was enacted, passing the succession through the Cabinet in the order of the creation of the several departments represented there, beginning with the Secretary of State and ending with the Secretary of the Interior; the Department of Agriculture not having at that time been raised to Cabinet dignity.

Athough four Presidents and five Vice-Presidents had died in office, and the government has been carried on for a total of thirty years under only one of the two executive heads provided by the Constitution, it has never needed to put either of its succession laws into operation; the chances, therefore, are at least fair that it may never need to do so in the future. But since the method of selecting a Vice-President no longer has reference to the special qualifications of the man chosen, and since the chief places of the Cabinet are given to the men who, of the whole mass of citizens, are most nearly in accord with the policy and purposes of the President, the question recurs with force, whether the Vice-Presidency is not now a superfluity, and a rather dangerous one. The cases of Tyler and Johnson are too familiar to call for more than a reference. Even so conservative an administration as Arthur's caused a political convulsion which, under some other conditions easily conceivable, might have put a perilous strain upon our institutions.

Mr. Hobart is an exception to the general rule of Vice-Presidents in more respects than in the matter of seniority of years. He was chosen, it is true, on sectional rather than on personal grounds; but, thanks to the complete control of the party at the time by Mr. McKinley's campaign manager, it was not necessary to beat the bushes of the opposing faction for a candidate. The two men represented the same ideals as far as they represented any. During the summer and autumn of 1896 they were continually in consultation; and in the years that followed, Mr. Hobart shared the President's counsels as probably no other Vice-President has shared them in more than a half-century. If Mr. McKinley had died in office, Mr. Hobart would have succeeded to his plans and methods as truly as to his titular office. It is not safe, however, for a great nation to let its course be guided by exceptions. Either the Vice-Presidency should be filled, as of old, with a strict view to the possible succession, or it should be wiped out of existence altogether, and the honors and responsibilities of the President transferred at once, in case of a sudden vacancy in the office, to the adviser who is presumptively best educated to carry out the unfinished work of his chief.

GEN. TRACY'S TESTIMONY.

We may never get to the bottom of the Ramapo mystery, but if the Mazet inquiry continues long enough, we shall succeed in obtaining a fairly satisfying picture of the way in which a boss conducts the business of government that the people put into his hands. Gen. Tracy threw a great deal of light upon this subject last week—more, perhaps, than he was fully conscious of doing. He first became interested in Ramapo stock in 1887, becoming counsel for the company, and receiving as payment for his services 400 or 500 shares of its stock. He served as counsel till 1889, when he became a member of President Harrison's Cabinet. "When I became Secretary of the Navy," he said, "under an arrangement I made with MacFarlane, Boardman & Platt, I transferred all my legal business to them," including the Ramapo matter. In 1895 he went to Europe for his health, and, while he was there, the bill giving the Ramapo Company privileges of enormous value was passed by the Legislature at Albany. He sent a cable message to Gov. Morton asking him to sign the bill, and saying that he considered it a proper measure. At the same time Mr. Soley, of the firm of Tracy, Boardman & Platt, went in person to Albany and asked Gov. Morton to sign the bill, making no argument, and receiving $250 for his services.

Gen. Tracy testified that when he sent his cable message, he was unaware of the valuable provisions of the bill, and that he is subject to criticism for sending it; yet, after his return three months later, he became President of the Ramapo Company, and received more of its stock, raising his holdings in it to 650 shares. He continued to be its President till 1897, when he retired, selling out his stock for $41,500. He was certain that Senator Platt had never held any stock; neither had any member of Platt's family; and he was also certain that the firm of Tracy, Boardman & Platt had no relations with the company as a client after 1894. His associate in the firm, Mr. Soley, was equally positive about the Platt connection with the matter, declaring that he had never heard of such connection in any way, shape, or manner. Mr. Soley had received stock in the company also, but refused to reveal its amount. On other matters of the Platt Family Law Business both these witnesses were equally positive about Platt's utter lack of connection with such business, either as a stockholder in various companies and corporations for which the firm have acted as counsel, or in any other way.

The curious thing about this and other like testimony is the apparent belief of the men who give it that it is conclusive and satisfactory as to Platt's relations with the matters involved. If they can swear that he held no stock in Ramapo, they are convinced that his complete separation from the job is proved. If they can swear that he holds no stock in the Platt Family Surety Company, and that he holds no stock in any of the corporations for which the Platt Family Law Firm are retained as counsel, they appear to think that the public will be satisfied that he has no connection whatever with either firm's business. What they forget, or rather hope the public will forget, is the question, Would either one of these family concerns have had this business if Platt had not been the Republican boss of New York? Why need he hold stock in the family firms? Is not his "pull" their chief capital? Gen. Tracy confessed that though he was the chief promoter of the Ramapo Company for ten years, he never knew anything about its assets, or its property, or its financial condition. That is what everybody else connected with it has confessed. Ignorance of this sort is never found in the officers of any legitimate business, but it is invariably found in those of political business—that is, business which depends for its success upon the power of "pull."

Why did Gen. Tracy, when he went into Harrison's Cabinet, transfer his legal business to the Platt Family Law Firm, "under an arrangement"? Was that a part of the considerations which induced Platt to favor his appointment? Why, after he had transferred the Ramapo matter, and after the other members of the firm took a dislike to the chief agent of the job, did he consent to

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be made President of the company and to receive more stock? Why did the chief agent of the company think it worth while to continue the services and to increase the compensation of the senior member of the Platt Family Law Firm? Was there any other reason than that he wished to retain still further the Platt pull?

Then, too, how did it happen that as soon as Tammany had been induced by Platt's friend Lauterbach to take up the Ramapo job and give it an appearance of financial value, Gen. Tracy heard of it and was able to dispose of his stock so advantageously? Why did the chief agent of this job so persistently retain as figureheads for his company Platt's most trusted political friends—first Tracy, then Dutcher and Lauterbach? Was he not still after the benefit of the "pull"? If not, what was he after? Gen. Tracy says his life has been an "open book" before this community for many years. Is there a clearer page upon it than the one which he wrote in 1897 when he allowed himself to be used by Platt to defeat the Citizens' Union ticket? It could be shown possibly that Platt held no stock in the forthcoming Croker administration, but would that establish Platt's innocence of the crime?

THE COLLEGE LEISURE CLASS.

The college graduate of a generation ago, examining the condition of his alma mater as he finds it to-day, must be struck with the change in the character of the college constituency. With the possible exception of the smaller and more remote denominational institutions, the country boy who once formed the predominating element in college classes is more and more conspicuous by his absence. Analysis of statistics shows an increasing proportion of students coming, from year to year, not from the villages and country districts, but from the cities and larger towns. The young men who formerly made up the bone and sinew of American life, and who are still referred to, in story-books and commencement addresses, as the hope of the nation, are giving place to youths who know nothing of country life or country influences, and bring to their college days few of the habits of frugality and strenuous effort which distinguished their predecessors. So far as the student body is concerned, one of its most striking characteristics is the growing numbers and importance of a leisure class.

It is, of course, not difficult to see how such a change should have come about. The relative increase of the urban population has drawn to the cities a majority of those most able, and therefore most likely, to send their children to college; while the increase and diffusion of wealth have contributed directly to the creation of a large class to whom the four years spent at college represent no dangerous delay in attaining bread-winning power. On the other hand, the movement away from the rural districts, as has often been pointed out, has drained those districts of their choicest blood, until it is no uncommon thing to find, particularly in the older Eastern States, considerable areas with scarcely a family of notable ambition and resource. Even in the country itself, the country boy of fiction—once the country boy of reality—is not to be found; while as for his modern representative, the general average is not promising. Then, again, the growth of the free public high school, with its better-trained teachers, its systematic courses of study, and its ample facilities, has crowded aside the old academy in which boys and girls of all ages sat side by side, under the instruction of a teacher whose place in the profession was determined by a thin purse rather than by any pedagogical bent. For all practical purposes, it is only with the assistance of the free high school, or else of the expensive private school or tutor, that the young man of to-day can hope to fit himself for college at all; and neither of these aids is available save with the surroundings and under the characteristic influences of city life.

The growth of the class who come to college, not because they hunger for knowledge, but because they have financial resources and covet the social distinction of a degree, has unquestionably affected, at several points, the tone and conduct of the college. Rather singularly, it has not lessened the severity either of entrance examinations or of requirements for graduation. Candidates for admission to college have never been so well prepared, and the significance of the baccalaureate degree has never been so great. On the other hand, the presence of the wealthy and the city-bred has, undoubtedly, made more difficult the administration of college discipline. The rough and brutal practices of a generation ago have, indeed, largely disappeared, but their place has often been taken by practices which, while more modern and outwardly refined, are in reality more pernicious. The average American college of to-day has less outward disrespect and more actual indifference, less law-breaking and more wickedness, than the average college of fifty years ago. There is less regularity of attendance, less zealous pursuit of knowledge, less general and pervading interest in intellectual things. The presence, in the student body, of a conspicuous element who are financially at ease, and who value the social importance of college membership at least as much as the attainment the degree is supposed to represent, offers a strong temptation to laziness, and undeniably gives the undergraduate course a less direct bearing on the business of after life.

It is undoubtedly this increase of wealth in the college constituency which has paved the way, in considerable measure, for the gifts of elaborate and costly dormitories, of which a number of leading institutions have of late years been the recipients. It is a grave question whether the presence of buildings accessible only to the financially elect is not, in the long run, something of a bar to the maintenance of a healthy college sentiment. There was no more courageous thing in President Hadley's inaugural address than his recognition of the claims of the average man, and his insistence that the buildings of the university should represent a utility at least commensurate with their beauty. To be sure, almost anything is preferable to the utter barrenness of the college of former days; yet one can but regret the growth of an elaborate and glittering social life which, founded primarily on exceptional wealth, and for ever impossible for the student of limited means, tends inevitably to breed those social distinctions and gradations which are notably unfitting in a democracy, and nowhere conduce either to vigorous intellectual effort or to peace of mind.

For a college with wealthy alumni and friends, therefore, it becomes a serious problem how wisely to adjust the interests of those who, whether from city or country, are in the institution at much cost to themselves, and of those who come less because they want to than because they are sent. That the standard of college expenses, however affected by scholarships and loans, is bound to rise with widening demands, cannot be doubted. The modern city has come to be so largely the centre of our active political, social, literary, and religious life, at once the starting-point and the field for progress and reform, that the future leaders of public opinion must henceforth be sought there, if anywhere; and the college that cannot draw an increasing proportion of its students from the cities and towns is hopelessly behind in the race. On the other hand, intellectual attainment, now as ever, demands a simplicity of living, a modesty of surroundings, and a freedom from obligation to formal and fashionable caprice, hardly characteristic of the social class who make up the bulk of the college enrolment. That adjustment will be reached in part along the line of strict requirements, is probable; yet the problem is moral, rather than disciplinary. Somehow or other, the college must get hold of the moral interest of its well-to-do, and change what is now a privilege into an obligation. Precisely how this shall be accomplished, each institution must, of course, settle for itself; but the situation cannot be disregarded by any college which would scrupulously guard itself against the charge of fostering an aristocracy in a democratic state.

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FRENCH MILITARY JUSTICE.

Nothing was more extraordinary in the Dreyfus case than the manner in which a court was prepared for trying it. Its importance was fully acknowledged when the Court of Cassation was reorganized by a special act for the purpose of passing upon Dreyfus's application for revision. It was something like our creation of a special Electoral Commission to try the question of Hayes's title to the Presidency, or the English creation of a similar commission to try the question of Parnell's complicity in the Irish outrages. In all these cases the confession was made by the legislature that the question was too portentous to be submitted to any ordinary tribunal. The special court in the Dreyfus case was composed of the highest class of French jurists. Of course, it was an extraordinary thing, as it seems to us, that such a noise should be made about any offence committed by an officer of no higher rank than captain, but that was their affair.

But the case was referred again to a court-martial composed in the main of officers who had never given any attention to legal matters, who had no judicial experience whatever, who knew nothing about any rules of evidence or about the nature of proof. It was not unlike the reference of a judgment of the Supreme Court to a Tammany police magistrate. Of course, a great many people in France saw the absurdity of all this, but during the trial the excitement was so great that even those who perceived it most keenly were afraid to say so, lest they should be classed with "Protestants, infidels, Free Masons, and foreigners." Any criticism of the members of the court-martial as jurists would have put the most eminent man in France into one or other of these categories.

But the trial now being over, and sanity having reasserted its sway, the ridiculous character of the trial as a judicial proceeding has begun to make itself felt. The necessity of reform in military justice is before the Chamber of Deputies in the shape of various suggestions. The oddity of leaving a matter that came near bringing on a civil war to the decision of certain officers of or below the rank of colonel, forming exactly the kind of court to which would have been referred a private soldier's theft of a pair of boots, has begun to dawn on the public. The most interesting comment on the subject is to be found in an article by Henri Barboux, an old advocate at the Paris bar, in the *Revue Politique et Parlementaire*. He discusses with great clearness both the existing law and the proposed changes.

The subject is of the more importance because at present, no matter with what offence a French soldier may be charged, he has to be tried by a court-martial composed of officers who, M. Barboux says, are apt to be intrusted with the administration of military justice for "want of military capacity, or because their age forbids any of the great ambitions." The administration of justice, he says, requires "sagacity, penetration, prudence, distrust both of others and one's self," while in the Dreyfus affair the report of the court-martial was only a collection of insignificant, almost puerile facts—"even those who were most convinced of Dreyfus's guilt were shocked and astonished at this document."

The objections to a court-martial as a legal tribunal except for the trial of minor military offences, such as drunkenness, insubordination, cowardice in the field, disobedience of orders, are said to be: first, want of familiarity with the law and the weighing of legal proof; second, want of independence. The want of legal equipment does not need to be dwelt on in France. But the want of independence is more or less true of court-martials everywhere on cases in which the Government or superior officers are interested. Admiral Byng's case, the Duc d'Enghien's case, Marshal Bazaine's case, Dreyfus's case, and the McKinley "courts of inquiry" are all illustrations of how easily military officers may, even in the character of judges, be made to carry out the wishes of their superiors. Such officers can hardly lay aside the respect for authority which is naturally inspired by military training, and by their own dependence, both for promotion and comfort, on the good will of these superiors.

In England and America these evils are mitigated by the fact that for most criminal offences, certainly for the more flagrant ones, the soldier can be tried by the civil courts. In Germany the court-martials have at their side a sort of prosecuting tribunal, composed of an auditor and two assessor-officers, equipped for their duties by long studies at the university and a certain amount of practice before the civil tribunals. The same organization exists in Austria, where the auditors form a special legal corps, composed of seventy members. In Italy a military advocate familiar with legal proceedings is attached to every court-martial. But Russia has gone further than any of them. Her military tribunals are standing bodies composed of nine members. Three of these are judicial functionaries named by the Czar, and the other six have to be officers in actual service. Another of the French reforms proposed compels the members of a court-martial to give, like the civil judges, the reasons for their decision, and to quote in exact terms the law which they think they are enforcing, in order that the public may judge both of their competence and of their sincerity.

BRITISH GUIANA AND THE UNITED STATES.

GEORGETOWN, October, 1899.

The Royal Mail steamer which arrived at Georgetown on the 18th instant brought the full text of the award of the Arbitration Tribunal upon the boundaries of British Guiana with Venezuela. The cable had previously communicated the substance of the decision, delivered at Paris on the 3d instant. The award has been welcomed with a feeling of relief; for, at last, after something more than a period of two hundred and fifty years, an ever-recurring cause of contention between neighbors has been removed. It was bad enough to have the dispute with the Venezuelans themselves; but to have, moreover, the intervention of the United States in favor of our neighbors, even at the risk of war with Great Britain, was a thing hard to bear. How harshly was the latter Power misrepresented by some of your public men, such as Senator Lodge, Senator Chandler, and Congressman Livingstone, and how bravely did the *Nation* strive to urge upon Americans, in the dark days of December, 1895, and January, 1896, that Great Britain might have a better case than the Venezuelans represented.

With the exception of the grumblers, who are never lacking anywhere, the award of the tribunal is loyally accepted by the colonists of British Guiana. No doubt, the principle of influence over the natives, which in the last century drew the line between the colony of Georgia and the Spanish possessions at the St. Mary's River, of itself alone entitled us to Barima Point; but it was a matter of *amour propre* with the Venezuelans to have the territory adjacent to the mouth of the Orinoco, and the tribunal, having regard to the question of national safety, have so awarded it. We acquiesce.

We have not yet heard how our neighbors, now rent by one of their ever-recurring revolutions, have received the news of the award. As the Demerara *Daily Chronicle* newspaper of the 20th instant observes, "There is hardly such a thing at the present time as public opinion in Venezuela." The writer then goes on to say: "That unhappy country is torn and divided with insurrection, and if it cannot govern the territory it has, it surely cannot have much to regret in not getting a slice of British Guiana added to its burden." The monstrous claim asserted by Venezuela to the left bank of the Essequibo River was, indeed, as a prominent Venezuelan blandly admitted to this writer after the delivery of the award, *de trop!* The best thing that law-abiding Venezuelans can now do is to cross over into British territory, and become our fellow-colonists under the *Pax Britannica*. They shall be heartily welcome. For ourselves, we can now go ahead and develop our territory, free from the apprehension of Venezuelan "claims." Americans seeking investment for capital might do worse than give us a "look in," for we have vast mineral resources.

Most of the British colonies in this part of the world sent delegates to Washington, in the summer, to treat with Mr. Kasson, the American plenipotentiary, for admission to reciprocity under the provisions of the Dingley tariff. The draft convention acquiesced in by our delegates was adopted by the Legislature of this colony on the 12th instant. It remains now for the Senate of the United States and the British Govern-

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ment to ratify it, and its provisions will then become operative. Our people are not unanimously in favor of the adoption of the convention, some of the provisions of which will work against our timber, cocoanut-oil, corn, and other industries. The interests of our staple, sugar, have, however, been held to outweigh other considerations, and, rather than be shut out from the American market, we have accepted Mr. Kasson's hard terms.

By the convention, British Guiana is to get in its cane sugars at a reduction of twelve and one-half per centum of the rates of duty thereon, as provided for by the tariff act of the United States, approved July 24, 1897. On the other hand, British Guiana is to admit free of duty seventeen different classes of goods, the product of the soil or industry of the United States, one of which is "machinery and implements for mining, for agriculture, for the manufacture of sugar," etc. Machinery for the manufacture of sugar, which was formerly exclusively imported from Europe, and chiefly from Great Britain, has recently been imported from the States. Upon eight classes of goods, the product of the soil or industry of the United States, the convention requires that duty shall not be charged at a higher rate than 5 per cent. ad valorem. Upon eleven other classes of goods, the product of the soil or industry of the United States, heavy reductions from existing rates of duty are required. The duty upon flour, for instance, a heavy item, is to be sixty cents per barrel, instead of $1.00 as now, while duties upon other articles, such as cheese, lard, bread and biscuit, meats (canned or preserved), beef or pork (salted or pickled), butter, oleomargarine, etc., are reduced in greater degree. The colony may not increase the existing rates of duty upon coals, oats, or shingles.

That Mr. Kasson has tied us hand and foot as regards our tariff may be judged from the fact that, as regards other goods, the product of the soil and industry of the United States, the existing rates of duty are not to be increased more than fifty per centum. The colony may not put any export duties upon its sugars. The United States is to enjoy, in all respects, the most-favored-nation treatment, but will not concede the like to the colony. Finally, whenever any nation which at present is entitled, under treaties with Great Britain, to the most-favored-nation treatment, shall cease to have such conventional rights, then preferential rates of duty, in favor of the products of the soil and industry of the United States, which are specially stipulated for in the convention of Washington, shall be imposed by the colony upon the like goods coming from such other countries. It cannot be truthfully said that Mr. Kasson is "the friend of every country but his own."

THE END OF THE VILLAGE COMMUNITY.

NEW HAVEN, November 2, 1899.

The rehabilitation of that poor old patch-work Homer of whom we used to hear so much, offers an instructive example of the way in which the prevailing theory of one generation may collapse in the next. But even this overthrow of belief is less striking than the complete change of opinion effected within a decade or two in regard to the village community.

Twenty years ago, when Sir Henry Maine, who is still a writer highly and justly honored, was an oracle, it was generally believed by those interested in the problems of primitive economics that, as Maine had taught them, the truest type, if not, indeed the prototype, of a communal settlement was to be found in the Hindu village. To-day the number of those who hold this opinion even in a very modified form is exceedingly small, and it is probably safe to say that, in a decade more, the whole theory will have been given up by those competent to judge. The Hindu village community has in fact already vanished. The place where it was supposed to be knows it not, has really never known it. It is a fiction of a philosophic mind, the camel as he is evolved in the study.

The first blow to the old interpretation of sociological phenomena in India was given by the discovery that, instead of a community (in the strict sense) being *par excellence* the village of India, throughout the greater part of the country nothing exists that even resembles such a village. All over Central and Southern India, in the East and also in the West, there is one common type of village, the Raiyat ("ryot," subject, peasant farmer) or Severalty village. Only in the Northwest, in the Punjab, is there to be found the kind of village which was mistaken by Sir Henry Maine for a "village community." How do these differ, and to which races, Dravidian, Aryan, or Turanian, do they owe their origin? In his 'Indian Village Community' Mr. Baden-Powell had attempted to answer these questions; but the confusing mass of detail and the technical matter found in that volume have proved for many readers a barrier not to be vaulted. It was greatly to be desired that the author should re-formulate clearly and briefly the conditions of the problem and his own theory, especially as some of his earlier statements of fact had not passed unchallenged. That he has done so, in a little volume just published under the title 'Village Communities in India' (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners), will be pleasant news both for the specialist in Indica and for the sociological student. As the subject, however, is one that interests a still wider circle, and its importance is scarcely to be overestimated for any future discussion of the village-problem, a sketch of the salient features of Mr. Baden-Powell's theory as now revised may be welcome to those into whose hands the volume itself is not likely to fall.

To understand the force of Mr. Baden-Powell's objections to the theory of Sir Henry Maine, we must comprehend clearly the essential points of difference between the types of villages already referred to. There are two main classes of Hindu villages, the Severalty village and the Joint village. These differ in their constitution as follows: The Severalty or Raiyat vilage is characterized by having a "headman" (who is selected from one of the leading families), and by an allotment of shares of land to each member of the group. In this kind of village every member is responsible individually for his share of any tax that may be levied on the village. The holdings are periodically distributed, but this is only to insure sooner or later a fair deal, so that each villager, turn and turn about, may get as good a farm as his neighbor. This redistribution has been claimed to be an indication of an early communal holding, but wrongly; for the privileged families do not and never did own the village or share it in fractions as do the members of a Joint village. Four peculiarities distinguish this type of village from the most perfect kind of Joint vilage. The former has a "headman" (*pâtêl*), the latter has none. The former has holdings which have always been separate; the latter has holdings which are only inherited shares of an original single estate. The former has no mutual liability for taxes, but each holding is assessed separately; the latter has a joint liability, the revenue being assessed in a lump sum. And, finally, the Raiyat village has no common land, whereas the Joint village owns a common land, though it is liable to partition.

Such is the one general form of the Severalty village. Of the Joint village, on the other hand, there are three species. The first, or most perfect kind, is the Pattidâri, or "shared" ancestral village, where the community are the descendants of one man or of brothers; the second is the Bhâiâchârâ, or "brotherhood" tribal village, where a tribe, or it may be a clan, holds land under joint responsibility for the taxes; the third is the Associate village, where different families make up a united group simply for defence in holding their land against outsiders. A moment's consideration of the conditions under which land is possessed in each of these groups shows that the tribal and associate forms are not in any sense a body of communal owners.

In the tribal joint village the shares have always been held separately, having been originally allotted to each member of the group. The members are joint only in their united ownership of waste land and of the village site, together with a united responsibility for taxes. This kind of joint village is really a sort of Severalty village, and such a tribal allotment has actually been the starting point of the true Severalty village as shown in the primitive (matriarchal) Kolarian village.

In the associate joint village there is still less of real joint ownership. Here the shares are equal, and, as in the last case, are not derived from a common ancestor. The village is founded by families or colonists who take up land and allot it at once. These families or colonists may or not be of the same tribe. They associate only for mutual protection, and are joint only in assuming a united responsibility for taxes.

The villages of these two species are chiefly quite modern. They belong to the western and eastern Punjab respectively, and their inhabitants are Jats and other non-Aryan tribes. The Severalty village, generally speaking, is Dravidian.

There remains, as the only unit resembling a village community, the ancestral joint-family village. But here all the shares are inherited portions of an estate originally owned by one man (or two brothers) who became the rulers of the village. His property, the village, passed to his joint-heirs (agnates only, in itself an argument against communal ownership), and might or might not be divided, at the option of the heirs. Sometimes part is divided and part not. In any case, the heirs hold the property always liable to division, so that even in their case there is no communal holding. Still less does the whole village own the land,

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which is generally rented to tenants, the rents being divided among the descendants of the original lord of the manor. Even when the estate is undivided, each heir is actually in possession of a special part and holds it for his own benefit.

Turning now from this survey of villages as they are, let us see what they were as represented in Aryan literature. Here, in records going back to the earliest time, only that form of village is recognized in which there is a headman, individual ownership of land, and separate assessments of taxes for each member of the village. In other words, the historical village of India is of the Severalty or Raiyat type, and has all its characteristics as distinguished from the Joint village. If, however, the early Aryan village of the Punjab described in ancient literature conforms to the Raiyat type, and if the rest of India shows this type also, where is the village community of Sir Henry Maine? His type, in a word, was derived from the Punjab, but from the comparatively modern un-Aryan villages, chiefly settled within the last few centuries. And even these settlements are communal only in appearance. In reality, withal in their most communistic form, they are merely the still undivided inheritance of a joint family, an estate which is always liable to partition.

In the present statement of his theory, Mr. Baden-Powell has modified, to the great advantage of his argument, one or two rather hazardous statements which appeared in his earlier book (published three years ago) and were adversely criticised in an article that appeared a year ago in the *Political Science Quarterly*. In its new form, although I cannot admit the cogency of all the claims made by him against the Aryan in favor of the Dravidian (but these are minor points), Mr. Baden-Powell's theory seems to me entirely convincing. It not only agrees with the actual conditions of Indian village life to-day, but, as I pointed out independently ten years ago, it is in accord with the data furnished by ancient Hindu literature. Each set of facts refutes Sir Henry Maine's supposititious community. A real community, owning all village land in common, is not found in India, and the oldest Hindu literature knows only the Severalty village. WASHBURN HOPKINS.

Correspondence.

THE BOERS' AGGRESSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: With the tone and tenor of your articles in denunciation of "imperialistic rakes" and "empire gamblers" I heartily agree. The *Nation* stands *sui generis* as doing yeoman service to the cause of humanity and international morality. Nothing can be more admirable than your efforts to expose the absurdity and the immorality of war. When reading your comments on Mahanian "cases of conscience" we are irresistibly reminded of the 'Provincial Letters.' But, singular as it may appear to you, some of your readers are not much impressed, nor are they convinced, by the reasoning of your remarks on the war in the Transvaal. Now, without wishing to draw down your wrath upon ourselves, we venture to assert that a principle sound in logic and embodied in the law of the land may be found in justification of President Krüger's conduct, and that such a principle is not far to seek.

It is law throughout the United States, and also the law of England, that not only has the assailed or menaced party the legal right to defend himself, but the law imposes it upon him as a duty to defend himself as far as he has capacity, and it does not suppose him to lie under any obligation to remain supine and shift this duty upon others. But the law goes even further than this. In the leading case of *Patten vs. the People*, decided by the Supreme Court of Michigan in 1869, the court, consisting at that time of Cooley, Christiancy, Campbell, and Graves, delivered itself as follows:

"There was evidence—and the statement of the prisoner made on the trial must for this purpose be treated as such—from which the jury might have found (as supposed in part of the charge given by the court below) that the defendant took the axe from the house for the purpose of self-defence, and stepped out of the door for the purpose of inducing the rioters to leave, or of dispersing them; and that, as he stepped out, the crowd cried out, 'Kill him, damn him, kill him,' and that, rushing towards him, some one or more of them hit him with a gun or club or other weapon. If this hypothesis should be found to be true, instead of the charge given by the court, the jury should, I think, have been told substantially that the defendant was excusable for acting according to the surrounding circumstances *as they appeared to him*; and if, from those circumstances, he believed there was imminent danger of death or great bodily harm to himself, or any member of his family, then, if he had already tried every other reasonable means, which would, under the circumstances, naturally occur to an honest and humane man, to ward off the danger or repel the attack, he might resort to such forcible means, even with a dangerous weapon, as he believed to be necessary for protection; and if such means resulted in the death of any of the supposed assailants, the homicide would be excusable."

Thus the questions arise, What was the nature of Krüger's danger? And how did it appear to him? He alone, as representing the people of the Transvaal, and not a stranger, was the judge of the nature and character of the assault or menace offered by Chamberlain. Krüger offers to submit the quarrel to an impartial tribunal of competent judges, skilled in the interpretation of international law. Chamberlain refuses to go to trial on the merits of his case, but decides to test his cause by an appeal to force and arms. It is he, and not Krüger, who is responsible for the wager of battle. If it be said that this involves a *petitio principii*, equally so does the opinion which condemns Krüger. So far as we can judge from the evidence available, the enemy must have appeared to Krüger as an open, powerful, and notorious marauder, whose plain intention it was to impair or utterly destroy the integrity of the Transvaal in the ordering of its own domestic affairs.

But Krüger, says Chamberlain, had an "ideal," therefore, it seems, must he be slain. Ideals among weak nations, apparently, are not to be tolerated in Downing Street, and are to be turned out of the Transvaal as dangerous things. Our own great conqueror McKinley has familiarized us with this species of logic. Fortunately for the dignity of humanity, the Jesuit maxim, *perinde ac cadaver*, has never found lodgment in Boer or Filipino brain. Both Boer and Filipino vermin demand to be heard, not only as to the method of their own extermination, but as to whether there be any right of extermination at all.

Against you we have the dictum of Mr. Herbert Spencer, whose opinion is of more worth than the opinion of any other man in the world, that England's attitude towards the Boers is one of aggression, and, by implication, robbery. What the end will be we know only too well, but we are convinced that the Boer, like the Filipino, will not fade into the shadow of history an unpitied sacrifice in a contemptible struggle. Krüger, it is said, does not carry on the government of the Transvaal after the most approved pattern of free government; possibly he does not. But to this it is sufficient to reply with Burke: "If any ask me what a free government is, I answer that, for any practical purpose, it is what the people think so; and they, and not I, are the natural, lawful, and competent judges of this matter."—Respectfully yours, W. H. H.

DETROIT, MICH., October 30, 1899.

[We cheerfully print this letter, though we do not think the writer's contention is with us. We have never denied the right of the Boers to declare that a state of war existed, and to act accordingly by assuming a timely offensive. The form of their declaration, however—the ultimatum—could have but one effect, which we pointed out, to paralyze the Boers' friends in Parliament and to precipitate a war to the death. This defiance, and the crossing of the border, quenched the instinctive sympathy of mankind with the under dog in the fight.—ED. NATION.]

"EMERSON'S LETTERS TO A FRIEND."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Literary Digest* for October 28 is an article on the lately published 'Letters of Emerson to a Friend.' It is entitled "Emerson's Letters to Professor Norton," and in the course of it the author says: "The letters were evidently written (though there is no direct evidence of the fact in the book) to Charles Eliot Norton." On the contrary, the first letter in the little volume contains "direct evidence" that they were not addressed to me. It is dated August 16, 1838. I was then a boy of ten years old.

It is further stated in the article that these letters "have already, in part at least, seen the light in one of the magazines." This is not the case. No one of them has been previously published.—Very truly yours,

CHARLES ELIOT NORTON.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., November 4, 1899.

Notes.

The Doubleday & McClure Co. will shortly issue in two volumes a 'Life of Lincoln,' by Miss Ida M. Tarbell; and 'Bandanna Ballads,' by Miss Weeden.

Messrs. Scribner will bring out this month in three editions a series of eight pastels in color by H. C. Christy, being figures of actors and actresses of the day in characteristic parts, original studies from life.

Meyer Bros. & Co., New York, announce a novel, 'Near the Throne,' by W. J. Thorold, for the illustration of which certain

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"artists of distinction and renown" have posed in forty pictures.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish a limited edition of 'Pictures of Early New York on Dark Blue Staffordshire Pottery,' by R. T. H. Halsey.

'Voices,' a book of verse by Katharine Coolidge, daughter of the late Francis Parkman, is in the press of Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have nearly ready a volume of stories, 'The Surface of Things,' by Prof. Charles Waldstein; 'Little Beasts of Field and Wood,' by William Everett Cram; a Life of Hawthorne, by Mrs. James T. Fields, and of Aaron Burr by Henry Childs Merwin.

A year ago last May we reviewed at length Mr. Julian S. Corbett's 'Drake and the Tudor Navy.' The merit of the work has been such as to call for a new edition (Longmans), and the author has improved the occasion to correct a few errors, leaving the main body of his narrative substantially intact. The volumes are prettily bound in blue cloth.

In reproducing works non-copyrighted, or whose copyright has lapsed, though there are plenty of available editions, T. Y. Crowell & Co. are displaying no little activity this season. To the former class belong a one-volume edition of Clough's Poems, which will, we trust, make new admirers enough to promote the sale of the better English edition still in the market; George Eliot's 'Middlemarch,' in two volumes; Halévy's 'Abbé Constantin'; Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford'; Meredith's 'Lucile'; and Kipling's 'Barrack-Room Ballads.' Among the latter class are Curtis's 'Prue & I'; Longfellow's 'Evangeline' and 'Hiawatha'; and Hawthorne's 'House of the Seven Gables.' Clough and George Eliot apart, the rest offer a uniform well-ornamented exterior, and are mostly illustrated in color, with much success when the design is good.

Charles and Mary Lamb, after ninety-two years from their début in 'Mrs. Leicester's School' and 'Tales from Shakspere,' hold the stage once more in three very comely volumes, the Tales in two editions. One of these two is in the Dent-Macmillan series of Temple Classics for Young People, and its appearance need hardly be described or praised, being well known. It has no "apparatus" of any kind beyond the original text, but A. Rackham furnishes twelve rather graceful illustrations, with *Caliban* in color. The beautiful Edinburgh edition of the Tales (New York: Truslove, Hanson & Comba) is for the library and not for the pocket, has cleverer designs by Robert Anning Bell, is in bolder type and on better paper, and is introduced by Mr. Andrew Lang in the gentle rôle of devil's advocate—as one who would rather give Shakspere direct to children than resort to mediation even of the Lambs. Perhaps no evidence exists to show how far the Tales have maintained their popularity from a real hold upon youthful minds, and how far from Lamb's cherished reputation with adults. 'Mrs. Leicester's School' is again from the Dent laboratory, but in an individual form, oblong, with open and elegant letterpress, and designs *à la* Kate Greenaway by Winifred Green, in color and in black and white; all decorative and some extremely happy. The language of these old-fashioned child autobiographies must present some difficulties to the present generation, but, as in the case of the Tales, they will be largely obviated by reading aloud. The child's taste at least will be cultivated by the mere sight of this pretty gift-book.

Mr. Rackham has also the embellishment of Harriet Martineau's 'Feats on the Fiord' in the same series of Temple Classics—a welcome survival; as Mr. T. H. Robinson has of Charles Kingsley's 'Heroes.'

Prof. Franklin T. Baker has performed a good service in editing for Macmillan's Pocket English Classics a selection of Browning's Shorter Poems: children need such an introduction to this master. But the scrutiny given to notes, chronological list, appreciations and bibliography should have caught a luckless misprint on p. 67, in the opening lines of "Pippa Passes": "O'er night's brim, day *hails* at last," especially as the figure is repeated in the next line, "*Boils*, pure gold," etc.

Children might safely be left to browse in Mr. Cable's novels unabridged, but 'The Cable Story Book,' selections for school reading by Mary E. Burt and Lucy Leffingwell Cable (Scribners), cannot therefore be thought superfluous. Some obvious difficulties in the way of intelligibility have been removed with the author's approval. Miss Cable has appended the story of her father's life, and prefixed a portrait of him in his study.

Mr. Joseph Finn's 'Kipling Birthday Book' (Doubleday & McClure Co.) is one of the mechanical sort—so many clippings of prose and verse fitted to 365 blank spaces. Sometimes, as at the Christmas date, there is an attempt to fit text to season; again, the selections for January 2 would have been quite apt for January 1, whose own lot has no chronological significance whatever.

'The English Pre-Raphaelite Painters,' by Percy H. Bate (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), is primarily a picture-book, but the text gives a fairly just and accurate account of the Pre-Raphaelite movement and of the men who have taken part in it, from Madox Brown and the original Brotherhood to the latest of the younger followers of Burne-Jones. Six of the illustrations are admirably executed photogravures; the rest are half-tones, more or less successful, but giving a clear enough idea of the singular transformation of a movement the end of which had so little in common with its beginning.

The first two volumes of 'The Great Masters in Painting and Sculpture' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan) are of very different style and quality. 'Bernardino Luini' is a quiet and scholarly study, by the editor of the series, G. C. Williamson, Litt. D., of the old Lombard painter whose reputation seems destined to grow as his work is more carefully studied. The Catalogue of Works at the end is in a sense the most important thing in the volume, and that by which the author is "content to be judged." Mr. R. A. M. Stevenson's contribution, on the other hand, is a reprint, with slight biographical additions, of his somewhat exuberant and argumentative essay on 'The Art of Velazquez,' reviewed by us on its original appearance, and the catalogue at the end is supplied by the editor, who has not "attempted to be critical in his attributions." Both books are illustrated with numerous and fairly good half-tone plates, and each has a single photogravure frontispiece.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have had a good idea in initiating "The Riverside Art Series," small books intended to interest school-children in the great art of the world. The first volume, on Raphael, is by Estelle M. Hurll, and she has, perhaps wisely, chosen her pictures mainly for their illustrative interest and confined her comment to elucidation of subject and treatment. There is, however, an introduction, intended for teachers, which gives some analysis of Raphael's character as an artist, a list of authorities for the facts of his life, suggestions for collateral reading, chronological tables, etc. The best of the illustrations are only fairly well executed, while the worst are very bad; and even in a book of this nature we should not ourselves have thought it well to introduce so many of the works executed by pupils, not by the master.

Nicolas Poussin is as typically French—nay, as typically Norman—as his compatriot Corneille, and his work is as dignified, as admirable, and as cold. Only in the noble landscapes of his later years did he reach an elevation in art above that of eminent respectability. His character and his life were as austerely virtuous as his painting, and as little entertaining. 'Nicolas Poussin, His Life and Work,' by Elizabeth H. Denio (Scribners), is a book which resembles its hero. It is sound and solid and thorough and uninteresting. We have only two quarrels with the author. We do not think she proves her point in endeavoring to fix the year of Poussin's birth as 1593 rather than 1594, the traditional date. The final authority is the inscription on the artist's own portrait in the Louvre, dated 1650, and this inscription does not give "his age as fifty-six," but states that he was in his fifty-sixth year—(*Anno ætatis* 56), a very different thing. Our second quarrel is with regard to the extraordinary confusion in the dimensions given to certain pictures. What are we to make of a circular canvas with "a diameter of two feet ninety-seven inches," or of a painting "three feet thirty-three inches by three feet"? We suspect that these measurements are metres and centimetres boldly and originally translated—this agrees with our memory of the approximate size of "The Triumph of Truth"; but their preposterous nature throws doubt upon all the figures in the book.

R. H. Russell has brought together within covers Mr. C. D. Gibson's drawings, from the pages of *Life*, of 'The Education of Mr. Pipp,' and publishes the series complete as a holiday book. Doubtless, so collected they will appeal not less strongly to their admirers than they have done during their serial publication.

Scott, in a commercial spirit, once said of a fashionable keepsake that, "so long as the pictures were good, the letterpress might be bad," on the principle that two candles don't give twice as much light as one, though they cost double the price. He would have had no superfluity of excellence to deplore in the Book of Beauty entitled 'Modern Daughters,' by Alexander Black (Scribners), one of a series of productions advertised by their author as "books," which deal with the American girl as Mr. Black has envisaged her charms. His conspicuous ill-luck in this direction is profusely illustrated "with his own camera" in what he calls a "pictorial obligato." With an infatuation that to us appears inexplicable, he evidently thought that his photo-

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graphs entitled the letterpress to be very bad indeed. It is easy to be fatuous in dialogue, but to be more fatuous than Mr. Black's modern daughters is impossible. Too many books that are marked out by theme and treatment for private circulation stray out into the world. Between the ornamental covers of this pretentious volume we have not detected a single utterance or illustration that would not have been well lost to the public.

With a view to meeting the entrance requirements of several universities, Miss Cowan and Miss Kendall of Wellesley College have written a 'History of England for High Schools and Academies' (Macmillan). The chief points of difference between their volume and its well-known predecessors seem to be the adoption of a topical rather than of a purely chronological treatment, profuse illustration by means of portraits, maps, cuts of buildings, etc., and a large supply of bibliographies. The text follows good authorities, is clear and direct, gives a fair share of notice to each period, and is devoid of unpleasant mannerisms. Among distinctive features we must mention the authors' great regard for social and economic history. They have used Traill's 'England' freely and to good effect. Apparently Dr. Cunningham's works have also helped them. A book of this sort avoids controversial questions, and we find no new opinions either to praise or to condemn. Choice of subjects, style, and accuracy are the points upon which the failure or success of a school manual turns, together, in recent days, with the quality of maps and illustrations. In the present treatise these structural parts are all sound, and accordingly we pronounce the work successful. Among its other virtues, too, may be accounted wise omission of many obscure details which often encumber such writings. It is strongly but not expensively bound, the value being put where it should properly go, namely, into the contents. Over against so much praise we have almost no censure. A few of the portraits are hardly what they should be, particularly the one of Lord Salisbury at p. 454. On the other hand, Labouchere comes out very clearly at p. 459. In the latter case one is a little amused at the choice of subject. We have made no careful search for misprints or errors of statement, but notice two slips on p. 92. The date of Alcuin's death is there wrongly given, 814, and "Charles the Bold" should be Charles the Bald. On p. 490 a somewhat undue importance is assigned to the Jameson raid as a military exploit. P. 491, Cecil Rhodes is called "Sir Cecil." However, we have seen no heinous mistakes, and would state that the book deserves to be widely used.

Prof. H. Morse Stephens has republished in book form the 'Syllabus of Lectures on Modern European History' (Macmillan), which he originally prepared for the use of his students at Cornell. The course begins with 1600, and in eighty-seven lectures traverses 290 years, closing with the Triple Alliance. The subjects are wholly political, save for half-a-dozen lectures on "Literature and Philosophy," "Science and Art," which are interspersed at proper points. First comes a preface, which expatiates on the practical value of a syllabus; next a general bibliography, and then the main part of the book—successive skeletons of lectures. Under each topic are ranged from two to four pages of headings (with a copious supply of dates), and a carefully compiled bibliography, containing at least fifteen and often twenty-five titles. Although not greatly exceeding 300 pages in length, much matter has been compacted into this book. Its survey is minute and thorough. Smaller countries, both northern and eastern, receive attention, and yet are not unduly exalted. As a systematic guide to the chief topics of modern history and to the most important literature regarding them, this outline cannot fail to help college students greatly.

'Dionysos and Immortality,' by President Benjamin Ide Wheeler (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is the third and latest of the Ingersoll lectures on the immortality of man, delivered at Harvard University. As its subtitle indicates, it is a consideration of "the Greek faith as affected by the rise of individualism," the element which the Dionysos worship brought into the religious thought of Greece. It is in reality an outline of religion from the times before Homer to the days of Plato, Pindar, and Sophocles, and is abundantly illustrated with quotations from those writers. It has charm, and, though short (54 pages), is of solid worth.

The series of classic translations in which Palmer's "Antigone" and More's "Prometheus Bound" have already appeared, is now augmented by the publication of "Two Tragedies of Seneca," translated into verse by Ella Isabel Harris (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The two tragedies chosen for translation are the "Medea" and the "Daughters of Troy," which are done into blank verse of remarkable force and gracefulness. Indeed, as far as the rendering is concerned, the workmanship is in many ways superior to that of the two preceding volumes. The weakest part of the book lies in the introduction, which deals chiefly with Senecan influence on English drama.

M. Salomon Reinach continues to increase the obligation under which he is putting all students of classical art by his masterly compilations of material relating to the various branches of the subject. Having finished the bulk of his 'Répertoire' of Greek and Roman statues, he now sends us the first volume of a 'Répertoire des Vases Peints' (Paris: Leroux), which is of the same size as those on sculpture, and contains reductions in outline of all the paintings on vases which are to be found in the *Compte Rendu* of St. Petersburg, the *Monumenti, Annali,* and *Memorie* of the Roman Institute, the *Archäologische Zeitung,* the *Bullettino Napolitano,* the *Bullettino Italiano,* the Greek *Ephemeris* (from 1883 to 1894), and the *Museo Italiano.* In the second volume he promises as much more material from other sources, with a third to follow, containing, among other things, a "concordance" of the collections of vases, "si je suffis à la tâche," as we sincerely hope he may. We shall defer an extended notice of this work until its completion, contenting ourselves for the present with calling attention to the first volume, which will be found a most compact and useful handbook by all who are interested in the subject.

Among the series of "Pages Choisies des Grands Écrivains," published in convenient form by Armand Colin & Cie., Paris, now comes a 'Shakespeare,' in a mostly prose translation, by Prof. Émile Legouis. For the scene from "Macbeth" he borrows, by permission, M. Alexandre Beljame's version. The songs that occur he freely attempts metrically, but the sonnets chosen are turned into prose. His arrangement is intended to exhibit the poet's development as playwright. English readers will find profit in this book in more ways than one.

Rather slowly, but with marked literary and critical excellences, the volumes of the Imperial (*Kaiser*) edition of the works of Luther are being issued by the presses of the house of Böhlau of Weimar. Recently the twentieth volume, containing chiefly exegetical discussions from the year 1526 to 1532, and edited by Buchwald and Koffmane, made its appearance in a solid book of more than eight hundred quarto pages, costing 23 marks. This, however, makes only the fifteenth number in the series, as vols. 10 and 15-18 have not yet been published, the rate having been about one a year since the Luther anniversary of 1883. About one-half of the reformer's writings have now seen the light in this edition, which is of especial value not only to the theologian, but also to the student of Teutonic philology.

The U. S. Commissioner of Education has published in advance, in pamphlet form, chapter xxvi. of his Report for 1897-98. This is the report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America, prepared at the request of the National Educational Association, a document of such distinct value and utility that we would fain see it in the hands not only of every teacher of modern languages, but also of every superintendent of schools, for the need of enlightenment on the subject of modern-language instruction in the public schools is great. Unfortunately, this pamphlet edition is so small that it will reach but few, if any, of those who would profit most by it. We do not see a way to providing thousands of copies for free distribution, but it is to be hoped that some publishing house will arrange for the printing of a large and cheap edition.

Italian papers report that the International Congress of Orientalists in Rome was probably the most international convention of the kind ever held. Before the day of opening, 600 announcements had been made and 150 documents had been sent in. Among strangers not usually found at such meetings, the Japanese were best represented, followed by four East Indians, one Persian, one Armenian, five Arabs, and one Druse Emir. The attendance on the part of the best scholarship was especially good.

—Under the patronage of the Queen, who has expressed her personal interest in the matter, a committee has been formed in Holland for the organization of a Dutch Historical Naval Exhibition, to occur at The Hague in the summer of 1900. The Minister of Marine is the honorary President of the committee, who will attempt, by collecting portraits of naval heroes, paintings, engravings, autographs, logs, journals, lampoons, arms, and personal mementoes connected with Dutch historical persons and events in the period before the year 1795, to convey an idea of what was accomplished in the Netherlands previous to this century in naval affairs, tactics, discoveries, trade, and fisheries. The Secretary of the Committee, Lieut. Colenbrander, of the Royal Dutch Navy, in a letter to the Holland Society of

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this city, states that, as it is especially important from the historical point of view to collect documents relating to the most interesting facts of Dutch history, to which the settlement of the Dutch in New Amsterdam may be considered unquestionably to belong, the Committee will endeavor to obtain contributions from this country, since they consider it most probable that objects of value for the purposes of the exhibition are in possession of members of the Society, among whom, he writes, many well-known names in Dutch naval history are to be found. The Queen has placed at the disposal of the Committee the so-called Gothic Hall and a part of her palace in the Kneuterdijk, where all necessary arrangements have been made for the safety of the articles to be exhibited. The Committee announces that it will undertake to pay all charges of packing, forwarding, insurance, correspondence, etc., connected with the exhibition, and that exhibitors do not incur any expenses whatever. They will, furthermore, remain responsible for objects loaned from the time they are forwarded until they are back in the hands of the owners, who are requested to fix the amount for which they should be insured. Mr. F. R. Planten, Consul-General of the Netherlands at New York, will undertake to secure a proper way to forward objects loaned for exhibition. At the outset, the Committee deems it most important to know whether there are any objects suitable for exhibition, to obtain a description of them, and to become acquainted with the names of the owners, in order to be able to solicit the temporary loan on behalf of the Exhibition. The Secretary's address is: G. P. van Hecking Colenbrander, No. 25 Prinses Mariestraat, The Hague, Holland.

—The publication in sumptuous form of the journals of Abel Janszoon Tasman, the first circumnavigator of the continent of Australia and the discoverer of Tasmania and New Zealand, by Fred Müller & Co. of Amsterdam, is a noteworthy event. Applications from the fifth part of the world have long been made for a trustworthy edition of Tasman's writings, for Jacob Swart's Dutch edition of 1854-60 was notoriously inaccurate, while those books about Tasman's voyage printed outside of Holland, from 1663 to 1893, were either hopelessly wrong or disfigured with many errors. Now, we have, on the best of Dutch paper (17 by 11 inches), a photo-lithographic reproduction of Tasman's own script as kept in the Colonial Archives at The Hague. With this is an excellent translation in English by Mr. J. De Hoof Scheffer, of Amsterdam, with facsimiles of the original maps and drawings. Prof. J. E. Heeres of the Colonial Institute at Delft, former archivist, who holds the chair of colonial history, has written the elaborate biography, and furnished the luminous introduction and the notes which form a commentary very enriching to the student. To the fruit of three years' research he adds the result of reading the entire literature on the subject of Tasman and the problems connected with the general subject. Naturally he ignores the less important of the more modern works of authors who simply copied or added to Swart's blunders, for which Tasman was not responsible. Dr. W. van Bemmelen of the Royal Meteorological Institute of Utrecht has added a dissertation, entitled "Observations made by the Compass on Tasman's voyage, etc.," which, with the charts, adds to the value of this historico-cartographic work, one of the most important issued during the present decade. Pages of the journal read like a novel. The chapters and charts showing the red, white, and blue flag of the republic in the southern Pacific seem full of timely information. The work is a boon not only to Australians, but to all students of the Pacific Ocean.

—Dr. Murray's prefatory note to the I—In section of volume v. of the Oxford Dictionary (New York: Henry Frowde) contains indirect admonition to purists who urge our college youth to eschew words of Latin origin in favor of Anglo-Saxon. He shows that whereas, in Bosworth-Toller's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, I occupies only a fifth of the space required for H, in modern English dictionaries I needs as much as H, or more. Both Latin and Greek are responsible for this, but especially the former tongue, thanks to the prefixes in- (with its phonic variants), inter-, intra-, and intro-. We will add to this that we have computed that one word in every forty in the English language begins with *cum* in its several forms (*com, con,* etc.), to say nothing of the host in which this prefix stands second. On the other hand, "the proportion of obsolete words (nearly 30 per cent.) is here greater than in any previous part," in conformity with the fact respecting our language as a continuous whole, that "the elements that have become obsolete since 1200 are not the native Teutonic words, but the Latinic formations of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, many of which were pedantic, cumbrous, or unnecessary." Some of this class we might wish had survived, as, for the euphemistic slang of the pawnshop, *impignorate,* 'up the spout'; for the defence in a case of leze-majesty, *illesed;* for the opposite of "expedition," *impedition,* 'hindrance' (*impedite* is not quite gone out of use); for poetic dignity, *imperance,* 'commandingness'; for occasional convenience, perhaps *impedible* and *impertransible.* An anti-imperialist orator or poet of to-day would be the richer for a shaft borrowed from Milton against our political degenerates, "*Imbastardiz'd* from the ancient Nobleness of their Ancestors." Of synonyms like these we can hardly have too many, since there are always shades among synonyms, as is noticeable in the case of *important* (dating from 1586, and *importance,* from 1508), no one of the words used in defining which can pretend to compete with it in frequency of employment.

—There is something of the freshness of a literary periodical in this quarterly instalment of the Dictionary. The neologism *immune* (subs.) connects itself with the late Spanish war, as the sole citation, from the *Westminster Gazette* of April 28, 1898, shows: "Regiments (mainly composed of negroes from the Southern States, and other yellow-fever immunes)." Still fresher is this note, under the word in question: "In the United States, *Imperialism* is similarly applied to the new policy of extending the rule of the American people over foreign countries, and of acquiring and holding distant dependencies, in the way in which colonies and dependencies are held by European states." And a quotation from the *Nation* of April 27, 1899, serves to illustrate the definition of *imperialist* for America; the other quotations too being of the current year. Those who, of late, have, with John Woolman in 1763, "felt, in that which is *immutable,* that the seeds of great calamity and desolation are sown and growing fast on this continent," would gladly have had this sentiment here embalmed. Truly surprising is it to find not a single quotation from Coleridge under *imagination,* though no writer has more deeply considered the nature of this faculty or "esemplastic power," or more consistently employed the term in contradistinction to fancy. He would surely have criticised Emerson's "Fancy departs; no more invent," as investing "the vision-weaving Fancy" with the attributes of the "shaping spirit of Imagination." "Fancy . . . has no other counters to play with but fixities and definites, . . . is, indeed, no other than a mode of memory emancipated from the order of time and space." "The secondary Imagination . . . dissolves, diffuses, dissipates, in order to re-create; . . . is essentially *vital,* even as all objects (*as* objects) are essentially fixed and dead." We conclude our desultory remarks by referring to the American origin of the word *immigrant* in 1792, its inventor being Jeremy Belknap; and to the caducity of the superstition about the ignis fatuus, for want of material to feed upon. "It seems to have been formerly a common phenomenon, but is now exceedingly rare."

—A new edition has just appeared of Dr. Isaac Taylor's 'History of the Alphabet' (Charles Scribner's Sons). This book, in spite of a too credulous attitude on Mexican hieroglyphics and Chinese characters, and of an over-hasty acceptance of the still unproved De Rougé hypothesis, which derives the Phœnician alphabet from the type of Egyptian hieratic character exemplified in the Papyrus Prisse, was of very high value when it first appeared in 1883, and still retains a certain amount of that value. For an estimate of it at that time we may refer to a lengthy review which appeared in Nos. 954, 955 of the *Nation* (October, 1883). The present edition is a reprint from the plates of the first. To each volume about half a page of emendations is added; the only other change which we have noticed is the omission of a paragraph in vol. ii., p. 348, and the insertion of a note to balance the gap in the stereotype plates. But in the last sixteen years a great deal has happened, and our palæographical knowledge has been expanded to the point of revolution. Inscriptions have been discovered and deciphered, hypotheses have been framed, abandoned, and reframed, and, as a result of the whole, the beginnings of history have been pushed back some thousands of years. Figures, once misty and legendary, have become clear and historical, and vistas of possibilities have opened behind them. Of all this, absolutely no reckoning is here taken. Dr. Taylor has had the double misfortune of writing on a living and growing subject, and of not recognizing in how high a degree his subject was living and growing. Thus we find his book antiquated at every point at which we can test it. The problem of the Hittite character and language was hardly existent when he wrote; it is now approaching solution. The inscriptions of southern Arabia he deals with in four pages. Perhaps this was adequate in 1883; now, it is ludicrous. The same is the case with the Babylonian inscriptions and with

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those of Egypt. Most important of all, the De Rougé hypothesis, which is the basis of Dr. Taylor's work, is falling into deeper and deeper discredit. But it is unnecessary to go on with details. The book is as it was written in 1883, and that is enough. The reprinting is a mistake and a misfortune—a mistake for Dr. Taylor's own reputation; a misfortune as it stands in the way of a modern work on the subject.

—An address on "Machiavelli's Influence in England" was recently given by Mr. Louis Dyer before the Workingmen's College in London, of which Prof. A. V. Dicey is the President, F. D. Maurice having been its founder. As Florentine Secretary, Machiavelli occupied, he said, a post like that of chief confidential clerk in the Colonial Office. Machiavelli was ousted from office by revolution, after fourteen years' tenure, and Florence lost his services during his prime. His three great works were produced in retirement. 'The Prince' must be read in the light of the 'Discourses on Livy,' which show our author's preoccupation with the people. The Prince was their only possible representative, because there was no such thing as the people then in any part of Europe. Queen Elizabeth's policy was avowedly Machiavelli's, and Lord Bacon was his greatest English disciple. 'The Prince' had many incarnations everywhere; he was the national leader under whom the several peoples of Europe made their perilous migration from the old order to the new, and passed the great divide separating the old world of the Crusades, the Holy Roman Empire, and the Church Universal from the new world of independent and self-centred modern states. His function to protect and defend his people is well exemplified in "The Golden Speech of Queen Elizabeth to her Last Parliament" (1601), and his power to rise above himself and speak the absolute mind of the people shows startlingly in "bluff King Hal's" speech as Protector and Supreme Head of the Church to his Parliament of 1546, where he reprimands the theological hair-splitting of zealots and the assaults of sectaries on the good order of the Church. Machiavelli's reason for painting 'The Prince' as he did was that only such a one could in those days be the centre of national life, and stand for the people. Ecclesiastical princes did not interest our author, because they alone among princes could not fulfil this duty, and were freed from all incentive to defend and maintain national life. The influence of Machiavelli in England began long after his principles had shaped English state policy. They were, as Bacon abundantly shows, practised by Henry VII. But just when English affairs began to be so complex that a reasoned theory of the new statecraft was indispensable, Thomas Cromwell, the earliest English disciple of Machiavelli, and the son of a London workingman, came to the front and inaugurated, under Henry VIII., the government of the Prince, for the People, by the People.

FORD'S FRANKLIN.

The Many-Sided Franklin. By Paul Leicester Ford. The Century Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 516.

Mr. Ford applies to our great diplomatist, politician, agitator, wit, moralist, inventor, and natural philosopher that same method of characterism he lately applied so successfully to Washington, and which, in a general way, had already been applied, for example, by Walewsky to Catherine II., and, still better, by Alfred Lévy to Napoleon. That is to say, he considers Franklin successively under all possible aspects in as many separate chapters. As the progress of psychology gradually imparts to biography a deeper scientific seriousness, this method will, no doubt, be more and more applied and improved. Its merits are no less striking for artistic than for scientific purposes. It enables one to gain an intimate acquaintance with a great man that no chronological narrative of the events of his life could possibly confer. By always keeping in view some definite question, it holds the reader's attention without effort or fatigue for him. It is the artistic side of the method, apparently, to which Mr. Ford has been attracted. His design seems to have been, by skilfully fitting together a multitude of small items with little comment or cement, to produce the brilliant effect of a mosaic picture; and in this he has succeeded. The general effect is most lifelike. But a mosaic, however beautiful, always leaves much to be desired if we seek in it a representation of fact. Nobody would dream of employing it to illustrate the description of an animal or plant; and Mr. Ford, by his particular way of following out the general method he has selected, is forced to renounce all attempt at anything like a psychological analysis or explanation of Franklin's idiosyncrasies. He must stick to the concrete for the sake of his mosaic effect, and indulge in no other generalizations than such as everybody uses in speaking of any person's character. The result is that the work, considered as conveying information and regardless of picturesqueness, is more a conveniently arranged assortment of facts to serve as a basis for a thorough study of Franklin, than an essay towards a clear and unitary conception of his mental constitution.

The volume reproduces no less than seven portraits of the American sage, without counting the Boston medal (p. 86). The frontispiece shows the soft, characterless thing in the Harvard Memorial Hall. There is a work of the Scotch painter, David Martin (p. 266), very handsome and winning, but, as a likeness, unconvincing. There is (p. 435) a rough caricature, valuable as proving to those who have attributed the slightly projecting lower jaw to false teeth (a suggestion evincing small research into Franklin's family) that this was already a salient feature at the age of fifty-eight. These three portraits are all wigged, and are doubtless earlier than the others. There is (p. 470) a miniature with an air of self-assertion, taken perhaps in 1774. There is (p. 40) a drawing in profile by the amateur Carmontelle, which quite bears out the reputation of the inventor of the *proverbe* as a producer of breathing and piquant likenesses. As might be expected, it exhibits Franklin as a wit. There is (p. 395) a profile sketch by West, seemingly very accurate. Lastly, and best of all, there is (p. 465) a portrait by West in an unfinished group of the American Peace Commissioners of 1783. This carries conviction in every respect but one—it is difficult to imagine that so vigorous a countenance belongs to an invalid of seventy-seven years. We give the pages on which these portraits are to be found, because everybody who looks over the book will wish to compare them. He will endeavor to form a mental composite out of them; and if he has enjoyed the acquaintance of a number of Franklin's descendants, some remembered features from those sources will contribute to the image. The same thing is true of one's efforts to realize the social impression that was so important a factor of Franklin's success. Here, too, one will, if he is in a situation to do so, avail himself of a class of facts that Mr. Ford could not very conveniently include, and which, not to be personal about men and women now living, we may content ourselves with exemplifying by recalling to those who knew him how much there was in the eminent geodesist, Dr. Alexander Dallas Bache, to persuade one that one saw in him something of the captivating mixture of geniality and finesse that must have shone in his great-grandfather.

Prof. Lombroso, in arguing his thesis that genius is a sort of insanity, does not shrink from mentioning William Shakspere; but he never once finds it convenient to draw his reader's attention to Benjamin Franklin. Is Franklin, then, not universally acknowledged to be a man of genius? If he was not so, one thing about him which produced many of the effects of genius was the strength and completeness in him of all the instincts of the normal man. Less hastily impulsive nobody could be. His colleagues complained of his excessive disinclination to come to any decision about most matters. That was because he habitually distrusted reasons. He was fond of joking about the deceptions of intellect. "So convenient a thing it is," he would say, "to be a reasonable creature, since it enables one to find or make a reason for everything one has a mind to do." But when the "subconscious self," as it is nowadays the fashion to call it, gave forth any utterance about men, in that he would confide; and the event almost invariably justified his confidence. In the noontide market-place of rationalism, as the Paris of his day surely was, though naturally irreligious, he continued steadfastly to believe in prayer and in future rewards and punishments. The very nature of the reason he gave himself for this belief, namely, that it was a wholesome one, suffices to show that something deeper than reason was his veritable guide unknown to himself. His common sense, the strength and normality of his unanalyzed judgments, his complete human nature, were what enabled him to acquire his knowledge of men and his skill in dealing with them; while his susceptibility, generosity, gentleness, and warmth sprang from the same root. "Friend," said a contemporary Quaker, "did thee ever know Dr. Franklin to be in the minority?"

It is plain enough that neither Franklin's wit nor his scientific sagacity, in which two powers his genius shone the brightest, could be an effect of instinct. Mr. Ford has a chapter entitled "The Humorist." Perhaps it is not quite accurate to dub Franklin a humorist. The French say of themselves that they cannot understand Anglo-Saxon humor. Certainly, in the days of classicism, a humorist proper would hardly have been relished in France as Franklin was relished. What is called Franklin's humor is a quality not altogether disparate from Voltaire's wit, albeit in buoyant gayety it may have fallen short. It would be easy to select samples of the two writers that should be, we will not say in-

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distinguishable, but quite of the same stamp. This goes to prove how extraneous to the real man the accomplishment, wit, is; for it must be granted that two sons of Adam never were more utterly foreign to one another than the excitable Voltaire, so often childish, petty, wicked, and the simple, not too fine-spun Franklin. They had, no doubt, their curious points of contact, that might throw some light on both of them. Their wit was one such point. Whatever this was in Voltaire, in Franklin it was an artifice founded on a desire to say something cheery and animal-spirited in his newspaper, whittled to laconics for his almanac, perfumed with French essences for the diplomat's purposes, and usually decorating some reflection on human nature. The humanity of the man was an essential ingredient—the most substantial ingredient that was not quite factitious. That Franklin himself did not esteem his wit or humor as belonging to his inmost self is shown by his fancying he very strongly resembled a man so remarkably devoid of it as C. A. Helvétius, who, by the way, defined very well, in his own solemn fashion, the distinctions between the different genera of pleasantry in the last part of his principal work. According to those distinctions, Franklin ought, we think, to be called in English a wit and not a humorist.

We do not deem it needful to expatiate upon how well Mr. Ford has treated the literary side of Franklin, because that will be taken for granted by the entire reading public. The scientific side is less well done. To begin with, the mosaic art does not lend itself very well to this subject; and then Mr. Ford does not sufficiently distinguish between the inventor and the scientific discoverer. Thus, he speaks of the Franklin stove and the lightning-rod as important discoveries. He quotes, apparently with approval, at any rate without a jeer, Jefferson's stricture upon the chemists of his day as not sufficiently confining their attention to matters of human utility. That is, he would have had Lavoisier, Scheele, and Priestley tread the pathway of Boerhaave, and Lemery, and the Cadets, who were a sort of apothecaries. If they had done so, the creation of chemistry would have been postponed to a wiser generation. Jefferson must not be blamed for not seeing how the new chemistry was destined to revolutionize human life; but can any instance be imagined that should more completely refute the policy of restraining inquiries seemingly useless? The true devotee of science, so long as he enacts that rôle, never thinks or cares about Philistine utility. In his mind, to learn the ways of Nature and the reasonableness of things, and to be absorbed as a particle of the rolling wave of reasonableness, is not *useful*, but is the *summum bonum* itself towards which true usefulness tends. At the same time, when one descends to the question of food and raiment, warmth and cleanliness, to decree that the scientific investigator shall pursue utility alone, can only mean that he shall pursue nothing but what appears to be useful in advance of investigation, usually among the less useful class of inquiries even in the most grovelling sense. Dr. Franklin ought to have considered that before he asked: "What signifies philosophy which does not apply itself to some use?" It was precisely that utilitarian spirit which made the eighteenth century a scientific desert. Franklin's remark, however, is valuable to us as showing what an unraised spirit of plain instinct and common sense was his.

Mr. Ford does not furnish sufficient data about Franklin's electrical researches to enable us to gauge his scientific powers. In eighteenth-century fashion, he puts the emphasis upon the identification of lightning with electricity—a contribution to meteorology and not to pure physics. The idea was not at all new, and probably not original with Franklin. His argument for it, which reads for all the world like an example out of the Port Royal Logic, was marked by his usual good sense and penetration. In the experimental verification he was anticipated by two other electricians, and his own showy demonstration was soon abandoned by him for their method. So far as the present state of electrical theory encourages us to venture an opinion, his single-fluid theory of electricity was probably substantially correct—at least, as against the two-fluid theory; but his argument about it has absolutely no value at all. He was led to the truth in this case (if it was the truth) by an operation of the mind of which he could give no rational account, so that this is another illustration of his subconscious strength. That which was really the best in his electrical work was his analysis of the phenomena of condensers; although he was not the first in this field. Here he was for the moment seduced from his eternal practicality, and appears as a genuine physicist. Mr. Ford gives a relatively better account of Franklin's studies of the Gulf Stream and of the effect of oil upon ripples and waves. But what strikes us most here is that, having got notice in advance of other scientific men of phenomena of great importance, he was only able to treat them in an amateurish and feeble way. There was, no doubt, every excuse for this; but the fact remains that these things illustrate better Franklin's sagacity in seeing that there was something important to be learned, than his power of bringing that something into the light of reason. The study of his scientific work strengthens our conviction that it was the general balance of the whole man that produced and still produces the impression of greatness. It was not reason, or focussed intellect, although he was eminent in that respect, too.

We shall not do Mr. Ford the injustice of making any excerpts from his book. Anecdotes that, when fitted into their places in the mosaic, are effective enough, would seem amazingly flat and dull if taken out and scrutinized by themselves; they have suffered enough in their first transplantation. The volume contains portraits of Franklin's acquaintances, facsimiles, and other valuable illustrations in such number that the search for a particular one in the unorderly list is a little onerous. The index is copious. The book is printed with all the taste and pomp that Mr. De Vinne commands; the plate-finished paper is good of its kind. The volume has a cover of which the possessor will never tire.

WADDINGTON'S SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

La Guerre de Sept Ans: Histoire Diplomatique et Militaire. Les Débuts. Richard Waddington. Paris: Firmin-Didot. 1899.

This is a work which represents a great deal of investigation among the unpublished state papers of Paris, London, and Vienna. Consequently, one cannot criticise it to the best advantage when separated by the Atlantic from the national archives upon which it depends. No good historian neglects the labors of distinguished predecessors, however successfully he may supplant them, and M. Waddington's pages abound with references to existing studies of the Seven Years' War; but the characteristic feature of his own addition to the large body of literature on this subject which has been produced by Englishmen, Frenchmen, Prussians, and Austrians is its copious use of original manuscripts. When we say that he undertakes to follow up Arneth on his own ground, we disclose in a word the serious nature of his task.

The volume before us is not M. Waddington's first examination of a topic in the diplomatic history of the *Ancien Régime*. Three years ago he discussed, in his 'Louis XV. et le Renversement des Alliances,' the question of that singular *volte-face* whereby France, having sided with Prussia in the War of the Austrian Succession, dropped her connection with Frederick and espoused the cause of Maria Theresa. This monograph on one of the most delicate points in eighteenth-century diplomacy was warmly welcomed, and its author has accordingly felt encouraged to approach a larger and more important theme, namely, the deadly contest for Continental supremacy and colonial empire which forms the central episode of European history between the death of Louis XIV. and the outbreak of the French Revolution.

M. Waddington begins with a detailed account of Frederick's movements in Saxony at the end of August, 1756, and includes under the title "Les Débuts" the whole operations of 1757. It will accordingly be seen that, in this opening volume, the action centres almost wholly in Bohemia and Germany. A chapter is devoted to the Anglo-French struggle in America, but it forms a small proportion of the whole, and indeed seems like an episode which interrupts somewhat brusquely the narrative of European affairs. For the rest, one sees at a glance what an opportunity of holding his reader's attention is presented to M. Waddington by the military vicissitudes which marked the beginning of the Seven Years' War on the Continent. At the end of 1757 the advantage rested with Frederick, inasmuch as he had preserved his own frontiers and retained a hold upon the greater part of Silesia. But, down to the battle of Leuthen, fortune had shifted her place with baffling rapidity from the allies to the King of Prussia, and then back again. Kolin and Hastenbeck had been followed by Rossbach, Rossbach by Breslau, and to Breslau succeeded Leuthen, which left the lesser power, territorially, with a narrow margin of profit at the close of the year. The tale of such astonishing shifts and changes, when told with the skill and learning which M. Waddington commands, has all the excitement of a carefully developed drama.

The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle is, in the light of history, a mere truce, and doubtless the statesmen who were chiefly concerned in arranging it recognized its hollowness. France had her standing feud with England, and, after Frederick's robbery of Silesia, Maria Theresa could not remain un-

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avenged. The really interesting point, diplomatically, is the intermingling of two distinct quarrels, and M. Waddington is extremely clear in showing how Prussia became opposed to France, and Austria to England. As late as the spring of 1757, when all four parties were prepared for action on a grand scale, success belonged to Kaunitz rather than to any other negotiator. Frederick had gained nothing by his capture of Saxony in 1756 which could compensate for the alliance between Austria and France. It was not until after the battle of Rossbach that the *entente* between England and Prussia became sincere, and in the meantime a firm agreement had been reached between the courts of Versailles and Vienna. By securing Mme. de Pompadour, the Austrian Minister had secured Louis XV., and France was even persuaded to weaken her forces engaged against the English for the sake of supporting an issue not her own. Well may M. Waddington conclude his sketch of the diplomatic preliminaries in these terms:

"Maria Theresa and Kaunitz had, we must admit, a right to congratulate themselves on the results attained. The enterprise dreamed of for so many years, and but lately abandoned because success seemed so improbable, had succeeded; France, from being a rival, had become a friend; much more, quitting the prey for the shadow, she had neglected her first and real adversary, England, in order to follow at the Empress's heels, and assail with her her old ally. This sudden change brought others in its train: with France came her satellites. Thanks to the support of the Court of Versailles, thanks to that of the great northern Power, it was possible to array half Europe against the detested enemy, against the robber of Silesia. The task of diplomacy was at an end; it remained for arms to finish the work begun."

Although in a book of this sort diplomacy and war are constantly interwoven, M. Waddington allots more space to the record of negotiations than to that of campaigns. We are tempted to glance at several episodes (especially those connected with the Austrian chancery) which he sets forth in a new light; but it will be, perhaps, more profitable to fix our attention upon a single case of the first consequence. Let us consider in some detail the attitude of George II. and his ministers towards France and Prussia during August, 1757. M. Waddington lays much stress on the Newcastle correspondence. "We shall draw from it," he says, "instructive particulars of an event which British historians have barely touched, and which M. Hassell [*sic*], in his conscientious work, has regarded from a purely Hanoverian point of view."

The battle of Hastenbeck, which was fought July 20, 1757, between the Duke of Cumberland and Marshal d'Estrées, resulted in the defeat of the allied British, Hanoverian, and Hessian forces. Immediately after his victory, D'Estrées, by a flagrant piece of court intrigue, lost his command, and Richelieu, his successor, instead of pressing the advantage already gained to its utmost, signed with Cumberland the convention of Kloster Zeven. This arrangement, which was largely effected by the intervention of Denmark, probably saved the allies from unconditional surrender. At least, it was thus interpreted at Paris, and only Richelieu's court influence saved him from disgrace. But it is from the side of the English that we must now view the situation.

Cumberland, in signing the agreement whereby Hanover was spared the worst evils of military occupation (although Richelieu filled his pockets out of various exactions), doubtless fulfilled the spirit and letter of his father's instructions, for George II. always thought of his electorate before he did of his kingdom. And when the first news of Hastenbeck, followed by tidings of the armistice, reached London, the old King told his ministers frankly that, having made all possible sacrifices, he must conclude a treaty with France if an honorable one could be secured. A sense of obligation towards Frederick did not seriously touch or embarrass him. When we consider what a difference it would have made in European history had he sued for peace at this juncture, we shall recognize the gravity of the crisis. To say nothing of Pitt's feelings, even the fickle Newcastle was dismayed at the prospect. The King's stubbornness, his seventy-five years, his lack of enthusiasm for the Prussian alliance, Frederick's reverses in Bohemia, and the French occupation of Hanover, formed a combination of obstacles which might well alarm a ministry disposed towards a vigorous prosecution of the war. It hesitated in its policy, and no wonder. Its position was only less difficult than that of the British envoy in Prussia, who must explain to the exasperated Frederick "la différence assez subtile entre les agissements de George II. comme Roi et comme Électeur."

In London, at the beginning of September, things were drawing towards a cabinet crisis. To Hardwicke, Newcastle wrote, September 10: "In a word, if we cannot find some means of at once stopping this project of a separate peace, Pitt will, I am sure, tender his resignation, and I cannot blame him for it." But, however keen George II. may have been for peace immediately after the battle of Hastenbeck, his wishes had, before the end of September, undergone a radical change. A stinging letter from Mitchell to Newcastle, in which the Ambassador gave a sympathetic account of Frederick's rage, probably produced some effect, and when, on September 17, the complete text of the convention reached London, the King became extremely bitter against Cumberland. On their face, the terms of Kloster Zeven seemed to every one in England as favorable as they did to Richelieu himself. A little later the agreement, though accepted by the two Generals in good faith, was found full of flaws, by which the French lost the fruits of their victory. Still, at the moment, George regarded its provisions as disgraceful, and lost no time in casting about for subterfuges. He speedily found that the King of England was not bound by undertakings made on behalf of the Elector of Hanover, and, after Frederick had astonished the world by beating Soubise at Rossbach, the alliance between England and Prussia, so attenuated in the summer of 1757, grew strong and profitable. As for the execution of the compact which Cumberland and Richelieu had signed, one may imagine that English evasions were regarded with a bad grace by France and Austria. In a few terse phrases M. Waddington thus estimates the moral aspect of the incident.

"That the breach of a convention of which the principle had never been contested, and which had begun to be put in execution, gave rise to charges of bad faith and to violent recriminations, is possible, even probable; they could be borne light-heartedly and answered at need; the essential thing was to succeed. The maxim, 'Force before right,' had as current an application in the eighteenth century as in our day."

So far as Continental operations are concerned, the striking military feature of the Seven Years' War is Frederick's success in breaking through the overwhelming forces which Kaunitz had arrayed against him. M. Waddington develops this part of his subject with beautiful lucidity of statement and criticism. Throughout each stage of a campaign he keeps open the lines of communication between court and army, in such wise that politics and war are never divorced from each other. Since the most exciting action is the battle of Rossbach, one is naturally curious to know M. Waddington's opinion of Soubise. Napoleon's epigram on the battles of Kolin and Rossbach is a celebrated one: "Les résultats en sont assez connus. Frédéric à Kolin ne perdit que son armée. Soubise à Rossbach perdit son armée et l'honneur." Such a verdict, based chiefly on tactical grounds, M. Waddington will not accept. Without maintaining that Soubise excelled the other French generals of his age, he considers it unjust to lay upon him the stigma of inferiority. "Conscientious, attentive to the wants and careful of the welfare of his soldiers, obliging to his subordinates, brave under fire, Soubise had the misfortune to find himself, in company with a colleague more incapable than himself, opposed to the first general of his time."

One chapter out of twelve M. Waddington allots to the war between the French and English which was waged in Canada from Montcalm's arrival to the capture of Fort William Henry. While the least important part of the volume, if fresh information alone be considered, it is a compact and suggestive review of events, and forms a serviceable pendant to the narrative of transactions in Germany. The facts which have most deeply impressed M. Waddington are the rivalry between French regulars and Canadian *habitants* (the latter being represented by Vaudreuil and Rigaud), the corruption of the financial system under Bigot, and England's naval superiority. The loss of the colony by France he ascribes to this last cause rather than to the Intendant's shameful frauds, which rendered the vast subventions of the Colonial Office inoperative.

For the American portion of the Seven Years' War M. Waddington's book cannot be considered indispensable, but for the progress of that momentous struggle in Europe, it must henceforth hold a place in the first rank.

Holland and the Hollanders. By David S. Meldrum. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. 405.

With the delightful characterizations of De Amicis's 'Holland' in mind—particularly in the light of an intimate personal acquaintance with place and people, so apt are they in their measure of both—some temerity is required to go over what must needs be to a very great extent the same ground, if the term be not a misnomer in a country where so much of the land is water. The author, however, in spite of his handicap, has given us, even when ranged side by side with his prototype, a thoroughly enjoyable book. He

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has wisely not attempted a De Amicis to date, but has gone out beyond the older book in his record of fact. He has chapters, for instance, on "How Holland is Governed" and "How Holland is Educated," and "The Fight with the Waters" is altogether the most intelligible presentation of the actual significance of this "whole story of reclamation and defence" which is going on and must go on, that we remember to have read.

The author of the present book knows not only his Dutchmen and their country, but his Dutch, which De Amicis notoriously did not. He is able, accordingly, to talk of many things that are not readily caught, or are not caught at all, by the eye and the ear of the cursory traveller within Holland's flood-gates. He tells us not only of the significance to the state of the *gemeente raad* and of the *heemraadschap*, but of the subtle social distinction existing between *mevrouw*, *juffrouw*, and *vrouw*. We are now set right, too, to take an humble instance, as to the real character of that army of cakes so confusing to the alien mind—*Haarlemmer halletjes*, *Haagsche hopjes*, *Deventer koeken*, *moppen*, *krakelingen*, *poffertjes*, and *wafelen;* and this is important, for many of them, though dear to the hearts of the Dutch people, are not in their dictionaries. It may, however, be unfamiliarity with the article indicated that leads the author to write *Schnapps*, instead of the Dutch word *snaps*. Dutch proper names, also, are given with the sureness of familiarity. Only Dr. Kuyper, editor, statesman, and theologian, whose own signature lies before us, appears as Kuiper—a change, to be sure, as in the case of the other word also, less in spirit than in letter. And while the talk is of the Dutch language, it may be well to quote what the author says of the linguistic attitude of the educated Dutchman. "It is given to few," he writes, "to have the capacity, to fewer still the will, to navigate headlands of aspirates, and to weather torrents of gutturals, and to reach the haven of the Dutchman's understanding in his own tongue. The Dutch are polyglot for very life."

In his estimate of Dutch character and of social conditions the author is generally just, with the justness, again, that is born of intimate knowledge. While there is, from the very nature of the case, nothing absolutely new in this phase of the book (for even De Amicis, back in his day, did not discover Holland), very many of the author's characterizations are altogether striking and have never been better put. There is an entire absence, too, of the bantering tone that for some reason is felt to be necessary in writing of Holland, and which is so offensive to the Dutch themselves, who rightly see no reason why they should not be taken seriously. Dutch foibles are not overlooked for Dutch virtues. The "extreme and exaggerated orderliness of existence," apparent not only in the trim and sober towns, the straight lines of the canals, in the laying out of gardens and the decoration of houses, but in all the various details of life, which is so marked a characteristic in most parts of Holland that it is sure to be one impression which every traveller carries away, is properly reckoned among the former. "For all their contrivances to insure comfort, the Dutch," he says, "fail to attain to ease in living. They add infinite friction to life in promoting a machinery for making it smooth. They are cumbrously comfortable and painfully at ease." Here is a virtue, however, that only by excess has become a fault, and it is due to the physiographical conditions in which the Hollanders live, to the abiding sense in the people that their very existence, in their fight with the waters, depends upon a mechanical precision which has entered as an enduring influence into the national character. Where the author sees the Dutchman at home uncompromising and utilitarian, plain of speech, often brutally truthful, a sufferer of no illusions, it is again "his constant fight with the insensible elements that has taught him to discern the hard facts underlying the appearance of things." As a citizen of the great world, however, the Hollander, in his endurance, his honesty, and his justice, in "his pride of knowledge and his pride of faith," does not, as he cannot, fare badly under this or any other impartial pen.

Mr. Meldrum's book is distinctly a gain to the literature on Holland. It will bring back vividly to those who have already seen these sights the memory of unforgettable things, and cannot fail to call up to the reader, whether he has seen it or not, as the author hopes, in its full significance "the picture of a whole nation going about their daily work peacefully below the level of the sea." It is copiously and well illustrated by pictures from a great variety of sources. In "The Burgomaster of Marken" we recognize an old-time photograph of our friend Schipper De Waart, who navigates the *snelzeilende botter*, broad in the beam and leisurely in speed, between the sleeping city of Monnikendam and his enchanted island, lying in the distance in the haze of sunlight, out in the wide waters of the Zuider Zee. The volume is appropriately bound in a cover of old Dutch tiles in blue and white, with a great red tulip in the middle.

Development and Character of Gothic Architecture. By Charles Herbert Moore. Second edition, rewritten and enlarged. The Macmillan Co. 1899.

The first edition of Mr. Moore's book was reviewed in these columns in 1890, and we have now to notice the much enlarged second edition. The new book is to the old one almost exactly as four is to three in mere magnitude. In the value of the text it has increased as much as it is easy to imagine a book of the kind, good in the first place, to be improved. In brief, the second edition embodies the results of nine years of thought upon the subject; of the effect upon the author of criticism, favorable and adverse, including some disputing of important propositions; of newly discovered or newly explained matter concerning the growth and spread of Gothic architecture in different countries; and of the results of at least one more visit to France and to some of the principal centres of pointed architecture outside of France. Of the changes caused by this renewed and continued study of the subject, that concerning the introduction of pointed architecture into Italy is the most immediately evident. The investigations of several archæologists almost contemporaneous with the appearance of Mr. Moore's first edition revealed unexpected facts concerning that introduction of the Northern style into the Southern peninsula. In this, as in other chapters, the new work is entirely merged in the old, and in fact the treatise has evidently been remade from beginning to end, the old material being retained only so far as it was found to meet entirely the new demands.

As to the illustrations, they also have been minutely reconsidered, and the improvement in this respect is even more striking than in the text. Ten photographic plates replace the rather unsatisfactory English woodcuts of the previous edition; they are not very perfect, having the fault common to photographic engraving except that of the highest class, namely, of being soft and woolly in texture, without clear definition of the parts. They are, however, trustworthy, and that is much; they do not deny and reject the facts of the case, except as they force the darks, as all photographs do and must. The illustrations in the text are very numerous, and all are from drawings by Mr. Moore or an assistant. They can be trusted implicitly to give no false impression, for Mr. Moore belongs to that school of illustrators, a school sadly limited in the number of its adherents, which believes in giving the facts, and only the facts, and in never offering conjecture where fact is asserted and is looked for. The line cuts made from these drawings are, therefore, "inartistic" in a high degree; that is to say, they have nothing to do with delicacies of light and shade, or with resulting pictures which shall in themselves be works of art. Their purpose is entirely historical, documentary, illustrative; their business is to elucidate the text by explaining in a few lines that which many sentences could not adequately explain. If one side of a tower or of the hollow of a vault is shown a little darker than the other side, this feature is not introduced with the intention of producing a painter's system of light and shade, but merely of explaining immediately the solid character, the projection, or the squareness of the building in question. The student is, therefore, advised to use these two hundred and forty illustrations with as much confidence as he would unaltered photographs of the same or similar architectural details.

In speaking of the drawings as in the sentences above as made with no artistic intention, we should perhaps have stated, also, that there is here and there an instance of failure rightly to explain the facts—a failure itself resulting from that denial of artistic effect. It is a curious instance of the value of artistic verity, of its being sometimes needed to explain that which we more commonly call truth—that is to say, the verity of tangible fact. Let any one look at the cut numbered 118 on page 216, and that numbered 124 on page 225, and he will see that the flying-buttress, which is, of course, in the plane of the outside buttress-pier, that takes up the thrust of the flying-buttress, has all the look of being set at an angle with it. This comes, probably, from a very slight deficiency in the light and shade, and it is mentioned here rather as an instance of how evanescent and unseizable a thing is "truth in art." Somewhat in the same way, the drawings of leaf and flower-sculpture in chapters xiii. and xiv. cause the lover of Gothic stone-carving to think seriously. It seems clear that accuracy in the sense of setting down the shades and what may be called the shadows—though these, in the gray weather preferred for such drawing

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out of doors, or in the grayness of the interior, are hardly shadows in the mathematical sense—is an unattainable thing. Many instances of this might be gathered from the drawings in the book, which suggest that Viollet-le-Duc's way of giving artistical character to his renderings of architecture is not wholly to be despised. We have learned to accept the renderings of that great genius and powerful draughtsman with a certain reserve as to their minute accuracy, point by point; but in cases like those above quoted we find in him an accuracy of a different sort, which is not undesirable nor without its use to the student. No such comment is to be made with regard to the drawings of constructional detail, for those in Mr. Moore's book are generally beyond criticism. Thus, on page 154, the drawing, figure 78, is explanatory and instructive in a remarkable way, and will impress upon the student the verity of Gothic vaulting of a certain type as no photograph and no less expressive drawing could do. All the drawings of interior structure are singularly intelligent.

Those who have found the first edition of Mr. Moore's work valuable will find it still more important to possess the second. There can be no doubt of the independent and peculiar value of the latest and most matured conclusions in a matter like this. Mr. Moore's conclusions, when they concern controverted questions, are, of course, to be taken only in their final form; and, where they deal with more accepted truth, should still be taken as he now words them, rather than as he did at a time nearer the beginning of his special studies of mediæval art.

Tunisia and the Modern Barbary Pirates. By Herbert Vivian, M.A. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. Pp. xvi + 341.

This is a very amusing book. Mr. Vivian possesses a bright, fluent style, telling in its way and not too careful. His descriptions are clear and good so far as they go, which is as far as he saw; but he did not see far below the surface. For that, his prejudices were much too strong, and he had not the necessary knowledge, to begin with, of Arabic and Islam. Thus the title itself voices one of his prejudices: the "modern Barbary pirates" are the French who have occupied and who administer the country. With them and their methods he has no patience: "The administration of Tunisia is as rotten as that of the French Republic." After that there is not much to be said. But the source of these tears is evident. Mr. Vivian is one of the very patriotic Englishmen who think that their country has been wronged when territory is seized by any other Power than England, and who clamor against the treachery of the English Minister who has permitted the seizure. Another prejudice is about the Arabs, as he calls the Muslims of Tunisia, nine-tenths of whose blood is probably Berber. They are "that grand mediæval race which has bequeathed to us whatever civilization we may possess," "that noblest and most picturesque portion of the human race"; their "glories both in peace and war constituted the golden age of Tunisia." All this is very singular nonsense; yet it may be expected from a certain type of traveller in the East who is carried away by his æsthetic sense, stays only long enough to see a certain amount, and is absolutely ignorant of Oriental history. It is evident from Mr. Vivian's little introductory sketch of the history of Tunis that its vicissitudes in mediæval times are a blank to him. He can tell us about Carthage, Rome, and Byzantium, but he knows nothing of the fightings and turmoils of all the divisions of Alids, of the Murabits and the Muwahhids, and the rest. Besides these two which we may call major prejudices, he has a number of minor. One is too amusing to be passed over; he brings down with a right and left shot. "Just as you have only to set eyes on a Yankee to know him for an impudent vulgarian, so the first sight of an Arab suffices to convince you that he possesses every instinct of a gentleman." And let not the Westerner or Southerner comfort himself that his withers are unwrung; Yankee-land to Mr. Vivian is these United States. Another "minor" is missionaries and all their works. They are useless, ridiculous, fanatical; Cardinal Lavigerie and his white fathers meet with no more respect than any Protestant conventicler.

Of preliminary knowledge of Arabic or Islam, Mr. Vivian evidently had none, nor do his teachers and informants in Tunisia seem to have always guided him aright. Possibly they had their own little jokes with him. Thus, what he says on marriage and divorce is very inaccurate. A man cannot marry his slave girl; he must free her first. Marriage and property in Muslim law cannot exist together. A woman cannot divorce her husband "by a simple formality" or otherwise. She can force him to divorce her for certain definite and limited reasons. The *mustahall* marriage is not "a pure formality," nor would it be managed with "a common friend." The marriage must be consummated, and a stranger or slave is usually chosen. Again, it is not true that any school of Muslim law forbids a bridegroom to see his bride before marriage. A tradition from Mohammed expressly advised that, and all schools of law give the bridegroom the right. Practically, it is a right which he never enjoys. Again, there is no Quranic ordinance against reproducing the human image in any form. There is a tradition from Mohammed cursing the maker of a picture of a man or of an animal. There is also the well-known tradition that the maker of a likeness of any living thing will be called upon at the last day by the picture which he has made to give it life. Mr. Vivian adds to this an interesting development, evidently due to the tourist with his kodak. Suppose the maker of the picture is an unbeliever; he is damned at any rate, and an action against him at the heavenly bar will not help the picture. So the view has grown up that the remedy of the picture in that case is against the man of whom it is a picture, if he is a Muslim. As for pictures which unbelievers take of one another, they apparently are left out in the cold. Some other interesting bits of folk-lore and superstition are given—indeed, the chapter upon religion is chiefly an account of Ramadan and of superstitions, not of religion at all in the exact sense; but so great is the inaccuracy where control is possible, that these accounts must be received with caution. Mr. Vivian tells very clearly what he has himself seen; what he has been told is of more dubious authenticity. If a husband is prevented from entering his wife's room by finding a pair of her shoes at the door, it is only because he imagines that they are the shoes of some other woman. The Quran is not "the civil and criminal code" of any Muslim country. The development of jurisprudence has long passed that very elementary stage, and a Qadi bases his decisions on the legal treatises approved by his rite. These are very remotely related to the Quran, which is only one of their four bases.

Yet, in spite of all prejudices and errors, this book is most interesting and instructive. The chapters describing Tunis and the manners and customs of its people—"Arabs," Jews, and negroes—the trade and agriculture of the country, the state of education, superstitions and folk-lore, can all be read with advantage. There are over seventy excellent illustrations from photographs, and a very fair map.

The New-Born Cuba. By Franklin Matthews. Harpers. 1899.

This work is a revision and enlargement of the author's series of letters to *Harper's Weekly* on the American occupation, which are quite the best things written on that subject for popular reading. Mr. Matthews's information, however, was derived almost wholly from American officers; and, while he makes good use of this, it puts him under a certain obligation, which is seconded by a temperament naturally sanguine, to praise rather indiscriminately. Where all the departmental commanders are such splendid fellows, we have to compare their difficulties and achievements very discriminatingly to find that General Ludlow in Havana and General Wood in Santiago stand out preëminently for what they have endured and accomplished; and we do not learn here at all that General Wilson has injured his otherwise excellent work by indiscreet political utterances—that General Brooke has not had the adaptability to master a task so foreign to him—and that General Bates (more recently the maker of the Sulu treaty) was such a failure in Santa Clara Province that he was withdrawn as quickly as possible. The same delicacy prevents Mr. Matthews from commenting freely on the mischief of centralizing the provincial revenues, while he alludes to the act; or on the unwise appointments to office out of the Cuban clique that made the disturbance at General Garcia's funeral which he narrates. We likewise have a glowing account of Gomez's personality and his fêtes at Cienfuegos, but none of his triumphal entry into Havana, the quarrel over the disbandment of the Cuban army, his vacillating course and subsequent fall from popularity. We are told of military jail-deliveries, but very little of the administration of penal law.

These comparisons are not by way of criticism, but are intended to show the limitations laid on the book by the short period over which the author's observations extend and by his indebtedness to his military informants. When all this is said, it can be added with pride that nothing in recent years has reflected more credit on America than the brave, unselfish, disinterested, and able work of her best officers in Cuba: the Augean filth of the place (moral as well as material) made the task of purification truly Herculean; and the reduction of smallpox and yellow fever to negligible quantities in less than a year is only one of their feats. The regeneration of the customs service, the post-office, streets, buildings, and water supply; the reform of taxa-

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tion and the relief of the destitute; the establishment of schools; the suppression of pauperization, are other tasks that they have assumed with gratifying success, for which their insistence on excluding "politics" from the public service largely accounts.

The volume is profusely illustrated with new and well-chosen photographs. The type is clear, but the book is unconscionably heavy to the hand. A second edition might well have an index. The text is correct, except for a few blunders in Spanish—all, oddly enough, in the captions to these illustrations. The statue at p. 107 is of Alvear, not Tacon.

Economic Aspects of the Liquor Problem. By John Koren. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

This work is a continuation of the investigation undertaken by the "Committee of Fifty," some former results of which were presented in a volume entitled 'The Liquor Problem in its Legislative Aspects.' The purpose of this committee is, in the first place, a purely scientific one; their design being to accumulate such a body of facts as will enable them to deduce conclusions of logical validity. The difficulty of collecting facts without reference to the use to be made of them is very great, but Mr. Koren has done his work with commendable impartiality and with a fair measure of success. Most of his results are expressed in statistical tables, and we can comment on them only in a general way; but the processes employed deserve more particular mention.

One of the most gratifying circumstances connected with the work was the hearty co-operation of nearly all those to whom appeal was made for assistance. The thirty-three charity organization societies all responded, as did the superintendents of sixty almshouses, the officers of eleven children's societies and seventeen prisons and reformatories, and many others. In this way a great body of testimony was collected, bearing on the connection between poverty and crime and drunkenness, and on the "economics of the saloon." Special studies also were made of the problem as relating to the negroes and the Indians. No investigation of the subject so extensive and careful as this has ever been completed, and its results will be, as claimed, of "practical use for practical workers."

Of these results we mention the most striking. Poverty, among those who come under the notice of the charity-organization societies, can be traced to liquor in some 25 per cent. of the cases. In almshouses the percentage is 37, a figure more than twice as large as that obtained by Mr. Charles Booth in London. The investigation covered 13,400 convicts, and in half the cases intemperance was one of the causes of crime. It was a leading cause in 31 per cent., and a sole cause in 16 per cent. of the cases. The value of the liquor produced annually is more than $300,000,000, the capital employed in the business almost $1,000,000,000, the revenue collected from it nearly $200,000,000, and the number of persons deriving their support directly from it no less than 1,800,000. Nevertheless, there are many proofs that drunkenness is decreasing, and on the whole the investigation shows that the evils of intemperance can be greatly reduced by scientific treatment.

Greek Sculpture with Story and Song. By Albinia Wherry. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The idea of this book is not a bad one. It is, to combine a history of Greek sculpture with appropriate mythological stories and an anthology of relevant poetical extracts, ranging from Homer to Alfred Austin, and thus to make an interesting and instructive manual for young and old. Unfortunately, the author is quite unequal to her task. She probably knows a little Greek, though this looks doubtful; she has read Furtwängler's 'Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture' and Collignon's 'Histoire de la Sculpture Grecque'; she has heard some archæological lectures and has apparently visited Greece; and with this amount of equipment she has undertaken to popularize the study of Greek sculpture. The result is deplorable.

Here are a few indications of her degree of competence: she believes that Harmodius and Aristogeiton were brothers (p. 47); that the metopes from Temple E at Selinus and the obviously more archaic ones from Temple F belonged to the same building (p. 87); that the head of the Lancelotti Discobolus, which, in fact, has never been broken from the body, has been "correctly restored" (p. 93); that Lord Elgin was Ambassador to Turkey in 1780 (p. 128); that the marble acroteria from Delos are of painted terracotta (p. 174); and that the architect-archæologist, Canina, was a sculptor (p. 232), probably confusing him with Canova. We do not say that blunders as bad as these occur on every page, but we do say that these give no unfair idea of the value of the book. The æsthetic criticism is feeble and futile, the statements as to matters of fact are often false or muddled, and there remain only the poetical quotations to be grateful for.

The illustrations, with three exceptions, are of astonishing and inexcusable badness. It is some slight consolation to know that they were "made in Germany," being supplied by the publishers of Sittl's 'Atlas zur Archäologie der Kunst.' That wretched work has misled Mrs. Wherry into labelling a terracotta figure from Myrina as the Aphrodite from Fréjus (p. 301), but is not responsible for confusing the "Lycian" sarcophagus from Sidon, a work of the fifth century, with the "Alexander" sarcophagus of a hundred years later (p. 250).

The Solitary Summer. By the author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden.' Macmillan Co.

A garden of absorbing interest to its owner, a library full of books to comfort rainy days, a hamlet of German peasants, three delightful babies, and a "man of wrath" who by no means merits the title—these are the simple elements from which a bright woman, too cosmopolitan to be thought wholly German as she calls herself, has evolved a charming little book. "Elizabeth" tinctures the every-day affairs of German country life with her buoyant personality; and with, apparently, the easiest writing in the world, has succeeded in making the book anything but hard reading. The traditional fondness of mothers for talking about their children she makes no effort to suppress, nor could any one wish it, for her interest is contagious, and we could ill spare the account of their whimsical doings and sayings. Bits of wayside philosophy spring as naturally along these pages as the irrepressible weeds among the flower-beds. "Doctors are like bad habits—once you have shaken them off, you discover how much better you are without them." This seems a little hard on the profession, till one reflects that it was prompted by living in the deep country, far not only from doctors but from most of the ordinary causes of disease. The all too primitive morality of the villagers and the sensitive parson's grief for it both meet with intelligent sympathy. "They only know and follow nature." "Public opinion, the only force that could stop it, is on their side." "No finger of scorn is pointed at the fallen one, for all the fingers in the street are attached to women who began life in precisely the same fashion."

Probably the chief interest of the book to the serious-minded person in search of information will be found in those pages which discuss the manners and notions of these country people, while the easy-going reader asking only an hour's entertainment will enjoy it all, just as one enjoys a rambling chat with some lively friend.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, G. Fables in Slang. H. S. Stone & Co. $1.
Andersen, H. C. Fairy Tales. Translated by Mrs. E. Lucas; illustrated by T. C. and W. Robinson. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Bancroft, H. H. The New Pacific. The Bancroft Co.
Banks, E. J. Jonah in Fact and Fancy. Wilbur B. Ketcham. 75c.
Banks, C. E., and Cook, G. C. In Hampton Roads. Rand, McNally & Co.
Blanchard, Amy E. A Revolutionary Maid. Boston: W. A. Wilde & Co.
Blum, E. C. In Satan's Realm. Rand, McNally & Co.
Bourdeille, P. de. The Book of the Ladies. Translated by Katherine P. Wormeley. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.
Burrell, Rev. D. J. God and the People. Wilbur B. Ketcham. $1.50.
Burton, R. Lyrics of Brotherhood. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.
Carey, Rosa N. My Lady Frivol. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Chandler, Izora. Elvira Hopkins of Tompkins Corners. Wilbur B. Ketcham. 75c.
Child, F. S. An Unknown Patriot. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Christison, Dr. J. Crime and Criminals. Chicago: Published by the Author. $1.25.
Converse, C. C. Mr. Isolate of Lonelyville. R. H. Russell.
Cooper, E. H. Resolved to be Rich. H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Cram, W. E. Little Beasts of Field and Wood. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.
Dickens, Charles. A Tale of Two Cities. R. H. Russell. 25c.
Dole, C. F. The Theology of Civilization. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Douglas, Amanda M. A Little Girl of Old Philadelphia. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Drysdale, W. Helps for Ambitious Boys. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Ellis, E. S. Dorsey, the Young Inventor. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.25.
Ellis, E. S. Iron Heart, War Chief of the Iroquois. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Elson, L. C. The National Music of America. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. Texts Explained. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Fields, Anna. Nathaniel Hawthorne. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
Fishbough, W. The End of the Ages. Continental Pub. Co.
Foote, Mrs. Mary H. The Little Fig-Tree Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Ford, Prof. J. D. M. Exercises in Spanish Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Fraser, Mrs. Hugh. The Splendid Porsenna. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Gibson, C. Donnel. My Lady and Allan Darke. Macmillan. $1.50.
Gomme, G. L. The Prince's Story Book. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.
Gordon, S. Lesser Destinies. H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Griffis, Dr. W. E. The Romance of American Conquest. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Gudeman, A. Latin Literature of the Empire. Harper & Bros. Vol. II. $1.50.
Hall, B. Things as they Are. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.
Hamilton, Lord E. The Perils of Josephine. H. S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Harrell, J. M. The Hot Springs Doctor. Hot Springs, Ark.: C. H. Weaver.
Harris, C. Goethe's Poems. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90c.

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Harrison, Mrs. B. The Circle of a Century. The Century Co. $1.25.
Harrison, Mrs. B. The Anglo-Maniacs. The Century Company. $1.25.
Henty, G. A. The Brahmin's Treasure. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hodgkin, T. Italy and her Invaders. Henry Frowde. Vols. VII. and VIII.
Hoyt, D. L. Barbara's Heritage. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Hull, Prof. C. H. The Economic Writings of Sir William Petty. Cambridge (Eng.): The University Press; New York: Macmillan. 2 vols. $6.
Hunt, Violet. The Human Interest. H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Hunter, Sir W. W. Bábar. [Rulers of India.] Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Jackson, A. L. When Shiloh Came. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.50.
James, J. A. The Attraction of the Cross. F. H. Revell Co. 30c.
Jokai, M. The Poor Plutocrats. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Keightley, S. K. Heronford. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Kemble's Sketch Book. R. H. Russell.
Kirk, Ellen O. Dorothy and her Friends. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Knight, A. L. The Young Rajah. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 75c.
Laughlin, E. O. Johnnie. Kansas City: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Lees, J. A. Peaks and Pines. Longmans, Green & Co.
Le Feuvre, Amy. Roses. Wilbur B. Ketcham. 75c.
Lindsay, Lady. The Apostle of the Ardennes. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Longfellow, H. W. Evangeline. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Longfellow, H. W. Hiawatha. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Lord, W. S. The Best Short Poems of the Nineteenth Century. F. H. Revell Co. 50c.
Low, Seth. The Trend of the Century. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 35c.
Lusk, H. H. Our Foes at Home. Doubleday & McClure. $1.
MacDonald, W. Select Charters Illustrative of American History, 1606-1775. Macmillan. $2.
MacKennal, Rev. A. Homes and Haunts of the Pilgrim Fathers. London: The Religious Tract Society; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Macquoid, Katherine S. A Ward of the King. London: John Long; New York: F. M. Buckles & Co. $1.25.
Mason, A. E. W. The Watchers. F. A. Stokes Co.
Mathews, S. History of New Testament Times in Palestine. Macmillan. 75c.
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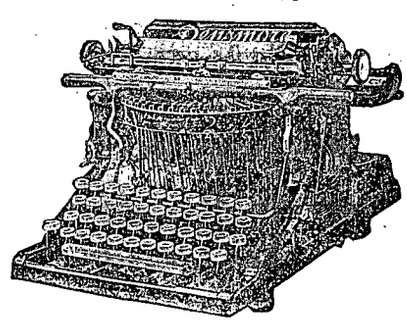

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